The Outlook

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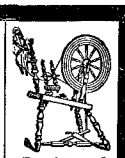

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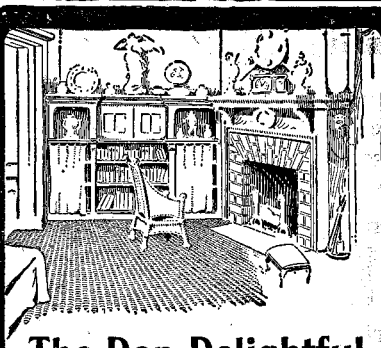

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President Mitchell's Cross-Examination

Last week President Mitchell, of the United Mine Workers, underwent day after day a penetrating cross-examination at the hands of several extremely able attorneys in the service of the anthracite roads—among them Wayne MacVeagh, Attorney-General of the United States during the administration of President Garfield. To those who have held the belief that labor officials are necessarily men of inferior ability who secure high salaries by promoting class prejudices the spectacle was singularly illuminating, for to few readers of the spirited dialogues did the thought of intellectual inequality among the participants occur. Ex-Attorney-General MacVeagh at one point expressed a common sentiment when he exclaimed: "Mr. Mitchell, you are the best witness for your side I ever examined." One of the best answers made by Mr. Mitchell was that asserting the responsibility of his union, though unincorporated, because "if our union violates the contract, the people of this country will take good care that we have no union left." Another answer almost as good was that pointing out that the mine workers had been the victims of a material part of the recent lawlessness in the coal fields, and that the lawlessness for which they were responsible had been obviously exaggerated in the press despatches. Referring to the dynamite explosions heralded over the country day after day, he said: "It is a peculiar thing that no one was hurt, no building blown up. The miners, if they wanted to blow up property, knew how to do it. . . . I don't think your people were averse to trying to create a sentiment against the strikers." A still stronger impression was created by the apparent sincerity of Mr. Mitchell's disavowal of the extreme measures which local unions had taken during times of intense class feeling. The action of the union at Schenectady in depriving a union militiaman of his employment was explicitly condemned. The most damaging admission brought out by the cross-questions was that the constitution of the United Mine Workers contained no provision for the punishment of members guilty of crimes. Mr. Mitchell said that members could be punished by expulsion from the union, but the union would not proceed against any member until his crime was established by the courts. During the recent strike, he stated guardedly, the union had "no record" that any man had been arrested who was one of its members. When Judge Gray pointedly asked President Mitchell the attitude of his union toward boycotts depriving "scab" laborers of the necessities of life, Mr. Mitchell replied that the union as such had not sanctioned such actions on the part of its members, though in times of excitement local bodies frequently boycotted stores selling supplies to non-union men. Judge Gray then restated his question by asking whether Mr. Mitchell approved of the withdrawal of the necessaries of life from those who had offended the union, and Mr. Mitchell replied, "Emphatically, no." It is to be regretted that the union's public declarations against unlawful methods of warfare are not supplemented by aggressive action disciplining the members who disgrace the union's cause by resorting to them. On Friday of last week an adjournment of the Commission was asked for by the attorneys on both sides in order that documentary evidence respecting wages, etc., might be collected and systematized, and the hope was expressed by Judge Gray, on behalf of the Commission, that during the interval granted for this purpose the two sides

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might come to an agreement regarding the essential points at issue.

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The Labor Troubles in Schenectady

There seems to have been a decided revulsion of feeling in labor circles in Schenectady regarding both the action of the local painters' union in dropping Mr. William Potter from its roll because he is a member of the National Guard, and also with respect to the attempted boycott against the Schenectady Street Railroad Company for employing non-union labor, both of which matters were discussed in The Outlook last week. From press reports, and also from information furnished by a special correspondent of The Outlook in Schenectady, it appears that many leaders of labor unions both in Schenectady and all over the country are opposed to the policy of refusing to allow union men to belong to the National Guard, while it is quite evident that the absurdity and folly of attempting to involve a whole city in a boycott has been strikingly proved by what has taken place in Schenectady. Our correspondent in that city, for instance, writes: "The general feeling here was that unionism had gone one step too far, and union men were not slow to say so, although in a somewhat guarded way." The same correspondent explains the nominal cause of the boycott as being the employment of non-union carpenters on a new car-barn when union men were not to be obtained. Behind this, however, he says, lay an attempt of the Trades Assembly to force the street-railway employees into the union against their will. It appears also that the company has done a good deal for the men in the way of providing recreation, baths, amusements, and reading facilities, and is willing that the men should have a union of their own. Our correspondent also intimates that the men's prospects as regards pay and employment are above the average. All these circumstances indicate that the strike and the resulting boycott were peculiarly uncalled for. They add strength to the theory that the Trades Assembly undertook the boycott under almost dictatorial pressure from a presiding officer who was eager for an industrial war without genuine care about its cause. Before these lines are read it is almost certain that the boycott will have been withdrawn by formal action of the Assembly. It has been a failure from the start, and the public has not only disregarded it but has laughed at it. A good sign has been the formation of a Citizens' Union, which, as we understand it, proposes to act when necessary as a mediator between capital and labor.

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The Law Concerning the Expulsion of Mr. Potter

It is said that the Attorney-General of the State of New York is considering the question whether the united action of the President and the Secretary of Local Union No. 2 in demanding that Mr. William Potter, of Schenectady, be dismissed from employment by his employers violates any law of this State. We hesitate to anticipate the decision of the Attorney-General on this subject, but to the lay mind the law appears very explicit. The criminal code of this State declares that—

> If two or more persons conspire . . . . to prevent another from exercising a lawful trade or calling, or doing any other lawful act, by force, threats, intimidation, or by interfering or threatening to interfere with tools, implements, or property belonging to or used by another, or with the use or employment thereof . . . each of them is guilty of a misdemeanor.

The courts of the State have held that, under this section, any combination designed to coerce workmen to become members, or to vex or annoy them in obtaining work because they are not members, of a union, is an illegal combination, and that a combination to prevent the "scab," so called, from working within a district, large or small, is a conspiracy, and punishable by imprisonment. The application of these principles in the case of Mr. Potter appears entirely clear. It was not illegal to expel him from the Union because he had joined the militia. A Friend might be expelled by the Friends' Meeting for bearing arms—and we believe this was actually done in the time of the Revolution; but we do not think there is a case on record in which the Friends' Meeting, having expelled the Friend for bearing arms, then proceeded to demand that he should be dismissed from employment because he was not a Friend. This is what Messrs. Sheffer and Pratt did in the case of Mr. Potter. They

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demanded that he must be dismissed from employment because he had been expelled from the Union for joining the National Guard. If this is not a "combination to prevent another from exercising a lawful trade or calling," it would be difficult to say what is such combination. It is true that the Court of Appeals has decided that union laborers have a right to strike against the employment of non-union men as their associates—see The Outlook for April 12, 1902, p. 891. But this was a case in which the non-union men were working for smaller wages than the union men; and their right to strike was put upon the ground that their object was "not to inflict injury upon others, but to secure better terms for themselves," and the right to combine "for the purpose of obtaining an advance in the rate of wages" is expressly affirmed in the penal code. But in the case of Mr. Potter their aim was not to obtain better terms for the union men, but to inflict injury on Mr. Potter for enlisting in the National Guard. It seems to The Outlook that it is clearly the duty of the District Attorney to secure the indictment of Sheffer and Pratt for conspiracy, under the Criminal Code, Chapter VIII., Section 168, Sub-section 5; and at least secure in this way a judicial decision by the courts whether a union may punish a workingman for loyalty to his State and compliance with its laws.

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The Case of "Father Augustine"

On October 4 The Outlook gave to its readers an account of the case of "Father Augustine," who, it was reported, had been subjected to the water torture and had died under the process. The story was given to the public by the Anti-Imperialist Committee of Boston; it seemed to us inherently incredible; we did not doubt the good faith of the Committee, but we thought it probable that they had been deceived, either by some Tagalogs or some sensational storymonger among the returned volunteers, and so expressed ourselves. We added that the story was being investigated by the Judge Advocate, and we believed that the public might rest assured that the investigation would be thorough. This assurance has been confirmed; the investigation has been thorough; we have not the official report of the Judge Advocate before us, and write in dependence on newspaper accounts of that report, but from those it appears that the truth of the report as presented to the War Department by the Anti-Imperialist Committee has been proved. The inhumanity of the crime made it inherently incredible; but the incredible is proved true. Captain Brownell has confessed to inflicting the torture and has admitted the death of the tortured. It appears that when the Anti-Imperialist Committee first wrote to the Department the Secretary of War was in Europe; that immediately on his return the matter was taken up by Mr. Root and an investigation ordered; that the investigation was conducted certainly with thoroughness and, in our judgment, with despatch; and the facts were given to the public as soon as they were ascertained. The facts are that "Father Augustine" was an important leader of the insurrectionary body in the island of Panay, and acted as treasurer and collector of funds for the insurrectionary forces; that he was arrested and delivered as a prisoner to Captain Brownell; that Captain Brownell resorted to the water torture to obtain evidence respecting the insurrection; and that under this torture "Father Augustine" died. It ought to be added that Captain Brownell belonged to the volunteers, not to the regular army; that he acted in violation of the general orders of the commanding General, without orders or permission from his immediate superiors, and without their knowledge, and that he concealed the death of his prisoner from his superiors, and made no reference to it in his military reports.

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The Nature of the Offense

The Anti-Imperialist Committee have rendered a good service to the country in this case. They have proved one instance in which water torture was administered by a military officer of the United States Government; they have thus raised a presumption that it may have been done in other cases not so clearly established; they have shown that such administration of torture was recognized by the officers themselves as unlawful and something not to be reported to their superior officers; they have thus at once inculpated the

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guilty and exculpated the innocent, by showing that the torture was not a part of the military policy of the superior authorities in the army. They have also demonstrated the need of something more than official reports from our colonial possessions, and something more than newspaper reports; they have proved the value of what we may call a "watching committee" to bring to the knowledge both of the Administration and the people acts which would otherwise pass unnoticed because unknown, as do similar barbarities in Russia. For it is, in the nature of the case, impossible for the War Department to investigate every story which runs its round in village gossip or in newspaper reports. Unless the events are of such importance and so widely reported as to become a part of the current history of the time, the Department cannot pay attention to them, though it must be always ready, as Secretary Root appears to have been, to investigate promptly, and without fear or favor, every case which is brought to its attention by a responsible person. For the act itself we can see neither justification, excuse, nor palliation. Under no conceivable circumstances can it be excusable in this beginning of the twentieth century to administer torture to extract testimony from an unwilling witness. If in the "Father Augustine" case, as is alleged, the object of the torture was to compel the tortured witness to testify to his own connection with the insurrection, a double wrong was committed, because the principle that no man shall be compelled to testify against himself was contemptuously violated. More than that: "Father Augustine" was a defenseless prisoner, and the rules of modern warfare require such prisoners to be treated with kindness and consideration. The law is thus expressed by General MacArthur in field orders, April 22, 1899: "When in hostile contact with the enemy, an adversary with arms in his hands must be killed if possible; but a wounded or surrendered opponent, who is incapable of doing an injury, is entitled to the most cordial courtesy and kindness." Captain Brownell violated alike the instincts of humanity, the fundamental principles of modern civilization, the rules of war, and the explicit orders of the commanding General. It was because such conduct appeared to us incredible in an American soldier that we regarded the story when first published as wholly improbable. Unfortunately, it is probable that the only penalty which can be visited upon Captain Brownell is the publication of his name in connection with the facts. When his term of volunteer service expired, he was mustered out of the service, and therefore cannot be proceeded against under military law; and it is probable that, having committed the act during war, he cannot be proceeded against by criminal prosecution before the courts either of the United States or the Philippines, though this question we believe has been referred by the War Department to the Attorney-General for his opinion. But, in our judgment, the War Department or the President might well take the occasion furnished by this case to reaffirm, and with emphasis, the principle embodied in the sentence we have quoted from General MacArthur's field orders, and voice, in language which would be heard and the force of which would be felt throughout the army, the indignation of all right-minded Americans at this or any other form of cruelty toward defenseless prisoners of war.

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Immigration Perils Increasing

A circular just issued by the Immigration Restriction League brings out sharply the fact that the seriousness of the immigration problem is rapidly increasing. In the first place, the amount of the immigration for the last fiscal year is once more a third greater than the year before, and is now twice as great as in 1899. In the second place, the immigrants in increasing measure are from eastern and southern Europe. Western Europe—Great Britain, France, Germany, and Scandinavia—which up to a few years ago had supplied four-fifths of our immigrants, now supplies but one-fifth, and the immigrants from eastern and southern Europe, who now form the great bulk of our new citizens, are of a relatively servile grade as regards intelligence and fitness for the responsibilities of citizenship. Only one per cent. of the Scandinavians and Scotch immigrants are illiterate, only two per cent. of the English, only four per cent. of the Irish, and only five per cent. of the French and Germans; but among the immigrants from eastern and southern

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Europe the percentage of illiteracy ranges from thirteen per cent. among the Magyars to seventy-two per cent. among the Portuguese—the average for all being forty-four per cent. The Hebrew immigration, which is separately reported but nearly all of which comes from eastern Europe, does not materially lessen the average of illiteracy. The Hebrew immigrants last year were more illiterate than ever before—twenty-eight per cent. of them being unable to read and write. The third point of increasing danger brought out in the report is the extent to which these immigrants are settling down in the foreign wards of our great cities instead of scattering over the country in such a way as to become assimilated to the mass of our citizenship. Nearly seventy per cent. of all the immigration is now destined for the four industrial States of New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Illinois. A fourth element of danger, not brought out in the circular, is the fact that these immigrants are pouring into our cities at the flood-tide of our prosperity, and will add enormously to the seriousness of our problem of the unemployed if the industrial depression which is now reported in such striking figures by the labor bureaus of Germany and England shall extend to our own country. From every standpoint, therefore, it is evident that the time is at hand to restrict the immigration in a manner that shall advance the intellectual level of our citizenship and enable us to develop a purer democracy. The bill to restrict immigration by excluding those unable to read and write their own language passed the House of Representatives at the last session, and has, it is stated, the cordial support of the President. Every effort should be made to secure its consideration and passage by the Senate during the session now at hand.

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Mayor Low's Administration

The extraordinary change in the vote of New York City, by which a majority of thirty-two thousand for Mayor Low a year ago was replaced this autumn by a majority of one hundred and twenty-two thousand for Mr. Coler, has not unnaturally led to a discussion upon the question whether the controlling cause was dissatisfaction with Mayor Low's administration, and whether such dissatisfaction—which may at least be assumed to exist in some degree—is or is not justified by the facts. The report of the Citizens' Union, made public last week, has an important bearing on this subject. The report takes up, one by one, the departments of city work, and gives for each a brief summary of what has been actually accomplished. It is impossible here to give in detail all these facts. In the work of the Board of Education, and in the Departments having to do with health, street-cleaning, parks, bridges, docks, finance, and many other branches of the city work, the Citizens' Union shows beyond question that there has been positive advance. These advances, taken collectively, must assure any student of the situation that the present administration has been working quietly, unsensationally, but persistently in the direction of economy and large public improvements, and always with a view, not only for the present, but for the future. As opposed to this record of hard work and tangible results, it is said by enemies of the administration that the most important reform of all has not been consummated—that so much needed in the Police Department. One critic points out that Mr. Low was himself, during the campaign before his election, most emphatic and direct in his assurances that sweeping changes were needed and should be made, and that those sweeping changes have not yet appeared. It is said that this problem of the Police Department was the issue on which the administration was put in power, and it is not unnatural that public attention should be concentrated on this one point. Mr. Cutting, who has prepared the report of the Citizens' Union himself, says: "It is true that the effort to solve the awful problem of the Police Department has thus far disappointed popular expectation." It is possible that plans are under way for a thorough reconstruction of the Department; it certainly is to be expected that the remaining portion of Mayor Low's administration will show more advance in this direction than it has so far done. That, taken as a whole, the administration has been immensely superior to the maladministration which preceded it is not open to question. Mr. Cutting, in

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concluding his report, makes so clear a statement of the relation of partisan politics to good government in this city that we will quote his words:

> In rehearsing the position of the Citizens' Union, let it be remembered it is not, except incidentally, an anti-Tammany organization. It is unqualifiedly opposed to Tammany Hall because that organization exhibits in municipal politics all the evils of the system which the Union was formed to overthrow. It is convinced that the municipal government cannot be wisely and efficiently conducted in the interest of the citizens unless municipal elections are entirely free from the party considerations which divide Republicans and Democrats. Voters of all shades of partisan opinion are admitted to its membership. The only citizens the Union is determined to exclude from its membership are the mercenary politician and the incompetent office-seeker.

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A Local Option Referendum in Vermont

Both branches of the Vermont Legislature last week passed a bill submitting to the voters of the State a system of local option and high license as a substitute for prohibition. An effort was made by friends of the present system to have the new measure submitted to the women of the State as well as the men, but this proposal was defeated by a majority of more than two to one. The striking feature of the discussion in the Legislature was the extraordinary favor accorded to a proposal to establish a dispensary system upon substantially the North Carolina and Alabama model. Such a measure was reported by a large minority of the committee which had the whole matter in hand, and upon the floor in both Houses developed great strength. Its supporters declared that the people of Vermont, though tired of unenforced prohibition, would not consent to a return of the licensed bar-room. Their measure provided for the sale of liquor by public officials alone, and only upon premises in which no treating would be allowed. Even such places for the sale of liquor were to be established only in towns where a majority of [illegible]ters so decreed. The referendum upon the bill just adopted is to take place the first Tuesday in January, and the result is in doubt. At the last State election the strong majority given to the local option and high license candidates represented all manner of critics of the system now in force. That a majority agreed in condemning one system does not necessarily imply that a similar majority will agree in supporting the alternative measure now proposed.

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The New Irish Party

The violence which characterized the action of the Irish members of Parliament at the opening of the session was undoubtedly premeditated, and is, unfortunately, an expression of the feeling of a considerable number of the party. The Irish situation is slowly but distinctly clearing up. The condition of the country has noticeably improved, and will continue to improve under the operation of the Land Acts of recent times. No measure of home rule has yet been granted—largely, it must be confessed, because, as has so often happened before in the history of Ireland, at the critical moment the Irish themselves alienated their friends. Sooner or later, however, some measure of home rule will be adopted, because home rule is in harmony with the genius of English institutions. But the acceptance of home rule by the English will depend somewhat on the attitude of the irreconcilables. They will accept nothing short of independence, and independence England cannot grant; it would create an impossible situation. It is doubtful, moreover, if the Irish, left to themselves, could manage the island; many of the most thoughtful and patriotic Irishmen doubt it. Divisions, religious and political, among the Irish are so marked, and the Celtic temperament is so peculiar, that to leave the Irish to govern themselves would probably be to leave them to fly at one another's throats. Many of the more thoughtful Irishmen doubt the ability of the race for high-class political organization. In any event, independence is out of the question. But the wrongs of Ireland have been and are very real; and the way to reconcile Ireland to English rule is to reverse the policy of the past. That has been done to a very considerable degree; but the reversal will not be complete until the Irish are allowed to manage their own affairs. The report that a new Irish Parliamentary party under the leadership of Mr. Healy has been formed, with a probable membership of about thirty out of a representation of one hundred and five, is interesting and hopeful. Mr. Healy is

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one of the ablest members of the Irish contingent; he has also been one of the most pronounced in his antagonism to England. It is announced, however, that the party which he is to lead is to be a party of moderation. He has apparently discerned the fact that the real interests of the Irish can be better served by securing the co-operation of the most open-minded Englishmen than by continually irritating the English and adopting an irreconcilable programme—a programme, that is, which cannot be carried out, which breeds nothing but dissatisfaction, which would be barren of all practical results, and therefore in the last degree unstatesmanlike. If such a party has been formed under the leadership of so brilliant a man as Mr. Healy, and if it is to use common sense and the spirit of moderation, it is a good sign for the future of Ireland.

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The Pilgrim Church

An unfortunate and, as it appears to us, needless controversy has been brought before the public by the conflicting claims of two churches at Plymouth, Mass., to be regarded as in the true line of succession from the original church of the Pilgrims. One of these churches is Unitarian, the other is Orthodox. Each is endeavoring to secure means for the erection of a memorial church edifice, and each is appealing to the descendants of the Puritans to contribute for this purpose. First an appeal was issued by the Unitarian church, claiming to be "the first democratic, the first distinctly Congregational church" in New England, and saying nothing as to its theological position. Later followed an appeal by the Orthodox church in which it is stated that there are two churches, one Orthodox, the other Unitarian, and appealing for aid to erect a memorial church at a cost of $100,000 for the use of the Orthodox or Evangelical church in Plymouth. To some of the historical statements in this appeal leading Unitarians have objected, and to their circular-letter stating their historical objections a reply has been issued on behalf of the Orthodox "Church of the Pilgrimage." Doubtless those of our readers who desire to know the facts in detail can obtain a pamphlet which gives the document in full by writing to the Rev. D. Melancthon James, pastor of the Church of the Pilgrimage, Plymouth, Mass. It must suffice for us here to say, without going into details, that apparently the First Church of Plymouth, which is Unitarian in its faith, has the legal succession to the original church of the Pilgrims; and the Church of the Pilgrimage, which is the Orthodox church, has the theological succession. The fact is that in 1801 a little less than half—we believe in fact one less than half—of the members of the original church withdrew from it on account of the theological teachings of its pastor, who subsequently identified himself with the Unitarian movement, and founded what they called the Third Congregational Church of Plymouth—the second church being a colony in another part of the town—but what they subsequently entitled the Church of the Pilgrimage. Thus ecclesiastically and legally this church dates from 1801; but we do not think that any student of theological history will doubt that in its Evangelical or Trinitarian faith it much more nearly represents the faith of the Pilgrim Fathers than does its Unitarian neighbor, Unitarianism having been historically a protest against the theology of the Pilgrims. We can see no reason for a conflict between these two movements. Those who wish to perpetuate and strengthen the Unitarian faith, as well as those whose interest in a memorial to the Pilgrims is purely historical, will naturally give their contributions to the Unitarian committee for the building of the Unitarian Meeting-House. Those who wish to perpetuate and strengthen the Orthodox faith, and those whose interest is rather to memorialize the spiritual faith of the Pilgrims than their ecclesiastical organization or their purely ecclesiastical principles, will contribute their funds to the Church of the Pilgrimage. Wlthout attempting to say where the fault lies, we cannot but think that both the churches, and the committees which represent them, would have done more to commend the spirit of the modern Church, as well as to honor the memory of the Pilgrim Fathers, could they have agreed in one historical statement, as they should have been able to do, and then urged their respective claims on

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their respective constituencies upon the basis of such an agreed statement of facts.

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The Conference of Religion

The New York State Conference of Religion, whose third annual meeting was held in New York, November 18–20, embodied two propositions: first, that it is a good thing for religious men of whatever creed to manifest in this world the unity they expect to realize in the next; second, that it is a necessary thing to do, in order effectually to resist powerful influences now menacing moral and social interests that are of fundamental religious importance. These propositions were supported by a more notable series of speakers than is usually brought together in any religious assembly, including men from Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and points between, who are widely known as authorities in their special departments. Such, however, is the rush and crush of daily affairs in "Vanity Fair," such the misconception of loyalty to Christ which inspires a large portion of the religious community with disfavor to the union of all religious forces in any less emergency than a storm at sea, that the attractiveness of the programme was matched only by the smallness of the audiences, except at the evening meeting in the Jewish synagogue, where, Rabbi Moses affirmed, were realized the visions of the Hebrew prophets. As if taking their cue from this attitude of the churches, the city press made little or no note of the utterances of such specialists in the study of religion as Professors Knox and Jastrow, and of what such men as Professors Ely, Ladd, Bemis, Hall, and Clark had to report from the fields of ethics, sociology, and economics.

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Religious Fellowship and its Interests

As a basis for a really religious fellowship adequate for religious co-operation in meeting the moral needs of society, the Conference laid down this "Quadrilateral"—borrowing the term from the basis for church union proposed by the Episcopal Church: 1. The Fatherhood of God. 2. The Ethical Teachings of Jesus and the Prophets. 3. Emphasis on Social Righteousness. 4. The Spirit of God in the Minds of Men. These were discussed at the opening meeting in the Church of the Holy Communion The unity of religion amid the diversity of religions was next taken up; after which five sessions were given to "the religious disadvantages of the existing economic order;" "art and literature as agents in social betterment;" "the present crisis in morals;" "the saloon, its functions and perils;" "socialism, religious, ethical, and materialistic;" "patriotism and national righteousness;" "the religious obligations of our democracy;" and "social salvation"—the topic of the closing meeting in All Souls' (Unitarian) Church. The address of Professor Thomas C. Hall on this theme was inspired with rare and thrilling fervor. While it is impossible here to quote at all from twenty-five addresses, all noteworthy, emphasis must be laid on the demonstration by this Conference that all men of real religion can occasionally worship together, and in one another's houses of worship as well as in the hall of the United Charities. The little service-book of Scriptures, hymns, and prayers, used at all its sessions by Jews and Christians of many denominations, can be procured for ten cents by addressing the General Secretary, the Rev. Leighton Williams, 312 West Fifty-fourth Street, New York.

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Bishop Thompson—Hugh Price Hughes

Two clergymen of prominence have died during the past week. Bishop Hugh Miller Thompson, of Mississippi, was one of the most widely known members of the American episcopate. Born in Ireland, he came to America as a boy, received a common-school education in New Jersey and Ohio, graduated from Nashotah Seminary, was ordained to the priesthood in 1856, taught Church History for a decade and acted as editor of the "American Churchman," of Chicago, became assistant rector of a church in Milwaukee, edited the "Church Journal" in New York, took the position of rector of Christ Church in this city, which he held until 1875, when he became rector of Trinity Church in New Orleans. In 1883 he was elected Bishop Coadjutor, and in 1887, on the death of Bishop

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Green, took full charge of the parish. He was an indefatigable worker as preacher, teacher, editor, and author, and a man of very interesting and attractive personality. ——Not only British Wesleyans but the whole Church have suffered loss in the recent death of the Rev. Hugh Price Hughes at the comparatively early age of fifty-five. A leader in his own Church, and also in the Federation of the Free Churches, of whose National Council he was at one time President, he was also an active promoter of philanthropy and moral reforms, as in the West London Mission, the Social Purity movement, and the Anti-Gambling League. One of his latest services was in defeating the ill-advised attempt last summer to remove Professor Beet from his chair because of his progressive theology. By pen and voice Mr. Hughes exercised a unique as well as a potent influence that will not soon cease to be felt.

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Oberlin's New President

Oberlin College has elected Henry Churchill King, its Professor of Theology and Philosophy, as President, to succeed Dr. John Henry Barrows. The contrast between the two men is striking. Dr. Barrows was a man of affairs, in the best sense of the term a man of the world, an orator, admirable as an officer to represent Oberlin College before the public and to make its past services and its present needs better known. Dr. King is a thinker, a student, a philosopher, preeminently, we should say, a university man. His recent publications show him to be possessed of an evangelical spirit mated to a catholic, broad, and progressive intellect. In this respect he is a worthy successor of two of his most eminent predecessors, Dr. Fairchild and Dr. Finney, and, we venture to predict, will maintain the best traditions of a college which, by the earnestness of its spirit and the progressiveness of its thought, has rendered a service to the country extraordinarily in excess of what might have been expected from its always limited endowment. Dr. King has been identified with Oberlin during most of his life, as student, post-graduate, and successively teacher of Latin, mathematics, philosophy, and theology, and for over ten years as Dean of the College. His volumes on "Reconstruction in Theology" and on "Theology and the Social Consciousness" show a man abreast of the age in his appreciation of its needs and his understanding of its thinking.

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Independent Thought in the Roman Catholic Church

In both France and Germany a school of independent Roman Catholic scholars is manifesting an influence that promises interesting developments in the future. In France, which, notwithstanding its historic "Gallicanism," for centuries has enjoyed the distinction of being "the most faithful daughter of the Church," a movement has arisen, chiefly under the leadership of Archbishop Mignot, that is demanding a reform in the education of the priests, the demand in particular asking for the abolition of the prevailing seminary methods and manners of education, with their mediæval ideas and ideals, in favor of the universities, as also the open recognition of the legitimate conclusions of modern Biblical criticism, and, further, in general, less of Thomistic philosophy and scholastic dogmaticism. The movement is not directed against the Church, as the recent public convention in Bourges, which was attended by hundreds of ecclesiastics, high and low, and in unequivocal terms voiced these demands, amply showed; but it asks for a deeper evangelical and Scriptural spirit in the teachings and life of the Church. Even the movement headed by the ex-Abbé Bourrier, the so-called "Évadés," or former priests, which has resulted, according to the repeated claims of the organ of this agitation, the "Chrétien Français," in the secession of nearly six hundred young priests from the Church, is not an agitation against the Church, and still less one in favor of Protestantism, but one aiming at a deeper spiritual condition of that Church. The fact that about one hundred of these former priests have become Protestant theological students or pastors is only the result of circumstances, they being practically forced out of their own communion. In Germany a similar propaganda was until recently under the leadership of the late Professor Kraus, of Freiburg, since Döllinger doubtless the most able independent scholar in the Catholic Church

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of Europe. His successor both in Freiburg and in this leadership is Professor Ehrhardt, whose work on the Catholic Church in the Twentieth Century is proved more than a sensation in its demands for a really spiritual and evangelical type of church life over against the political Catholicism of modern Ultramontanism and Jesuitism. Not all of these advocates of a higher and deeper type of religion within the Church of Rome remain true to their convictions under pressure of the authorities. Only quite recently Professor Schell, of Würzburg, who had maintained that Catholic thought must and can come to an understanding with modern scientific research and scholarship, has for a second time *laudabiliter se submisit.* Naturally, this school arouses the most determined opposition of the more conservative, especially as the advanced men openly acknowledge that they are students of Wellhausen, Harnack, Weizsäcker, and other progressive Protestant thinkers.

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A French Kulturkampf

It is remarkable that the Government of France has met with so little resistance in its vigorous enforcement of the Falloux law against the Roman Catholic teaching orders. The movement is essentially identical with Bismarck's efforts to compel the Roman Catholic Church in Prussia, called by the Germans the Kulturkampf, to submit to a certain measure of Governmental control. Yet the Bismarck Government, powerful as it was, and backed by a Protestant people, was compelled to yield, while a much weaker Ministry in Roman Catholic France goes forward with similar measures toward apparent success. Aside from the differences in the severity and justice of the two laws, there are two other differences worth mentioning. The first is that the liberal spirit of these times accords a greater consideration to the idiosyncrasies of the minority than it is willing to accord to those of the majority. The Roman Catholic Church is a sect in Prussia, and repressive laws against it assume the appearance of a political persecution. The spirit of the age will tolerate everything else, but it will not tolerate persecution. That is why Bismarck failed. The Roman Catholic Church is by no means a sect in France. The men who made and are enforcing this law are many of them members of it. The law stands upon its merits. It is a legitimate law and not a persecution. The second difference is to be found in the gentler character of the present Pope. A French journal justly observes that "if Pius IX. had witnessed the measures taken against the congregations, he would have covered the Ministry with his anathemas and fulminated major excommunication against the President."

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The Smoke Nuisance

The determination of the authorities in New York City to abate the smoke nuisance, now that it is possible to secure anthracite coal, will have behind it the enthusiastic backing of all men and women who care for the beauty and comfort of New York. Until the coal strike it was a city of almost unrivaled clearness of sky; since the coal strike it has been enveloped in clouds of smoke and dirt. Its comfort has been very seriously impaired, and there is little question that its health would suffer if the nuisance were continued. It is of the very highest importance that New York should remain, as it always has been, a clean city. That is one of its positive charms, by no means without great commercial value, to put it on the lowest plane. The crusade for clear skies is not a crusade against any particular kind of fuel; it is a crusade against an intolerable kind of smoke. It has been necessary, under abnormal conditions, to endure a nuisance in order to avoid not only discomfort but positive suffering. That abnormal condition of affairs, however, has passed away, and the local ordinances against smoke can now be enforced without inflicting either injustice or suffering.

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A Notable Musical Event

On Monday evening of last week the Oratorio Society of New York, under the direction of Mr. Frank Damrosch, gave an interesting performance of the Oratorio of "St. Paul." Mr. Damrosch is Director of Music of the public schools as well as Director of the Oratorio Society. Believing that the teachers cannot be expected to communicate musical culture to the school-children without being themselves brought under its influ-

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ence, he arranged, with the cordial approval of the Directors of the Oratorio Society, to give an invitation rehearsal on the Monday evening preceding the regular performance of the oratorio, and issued invitations to twenty-five hundred teachers of the public schools to attend. They availed themselves of this invitation, and Carnegie Hall was filled with an audience of school-teachers. It was interesting to look upon this audience and contrast it with the conception prevalent fifty years ago of the character of the pedagogue. Neither in dress, face, nor demeanor was there any indication of the pedagogue. So far as the audience was di erentiated at all from the ordinary concert audience on such an occasion, it was by a somewhat greater simplicity in dress and a somewhat finer average in the intellectual type of features. The oratorio was given with great dramatic power, and was received with great enthusiasm. It is not easy to estimate the service which Mr. Frank Damrosch is rendering in developing and elevating the standards of musical taste in New York City.

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The True Thanksgiving

In all true gratitude there is a searching of one's motives; for the gift, to one who receives aright, brings with it an involuntary judgment. The thoughtless, the conceited, the vain, accept what is bestowed on them without any compulsion to take account of worthiness; but the wise, the sincere, the open-minded, cannot receive without asking themselves whether they are worthy of remembrance. In every honest man there is an instinctive feeling that there ought to be some relation between the gift and the worth of the recipient.

The essence of true giving is freedom from the touch of the spirit of barter and sale; the true giver does not reward a service rendered nor pay for something to be done; he bestows out of love, generosity, the passion for sharing. But he who receives a gift worthily always asks himself what he has done to deserve such recognition or remembrance; and if he cannot find some justification in his spirit, his affection, his service, for the gift of another, that gift brings more pain than joy. Perhaps the finest part of a gift is the searching of soul which it brings with it; and the greater the gift the more frankly ought the man who receives it to deal with himself.

The Nation has never been so prosperous in the things which make for ease, comfort, health, and freedom of action as on this Thanksgiving Day of 1902. The granaries are full to overflowing; everybody is at work; the implements and mechanism of business are taxed to the utmost to meet the immense demand which unprecedented activity of all kinds makes upon them; schools, colleges, universities, are crowded with students and have been enriched beyond the dreams of the most generous founders; there is peace at home and abroad; old wounds have healed and old discords are hushed; the North has come to understand and honor the heroism of the South, to recognize its marvelous mingling of courage and patience, its wonderful recuperation, its generosity, its devotion, its idealism; the South has come to understand the conscience of the North, its power of sacrifice, its unlimited helpfulness; the great principle of arbitration has been invoked to settle serious disputes between nations and the most threatening of recent industrial wars; the head of the Nation and his advisers command in rare degree the confidence and respect of the world; the country has never before filled so great a place in the councils of civilization or carried so vast an influence.

Therefore, let the Nation search itself as never before to discover if it be worthy of these great gifts; if it be spiritually strong enough to bear this unparalleled prosperity; if it be ripe for noble use of these vast opportunities. It is a time, not for exaltation, but for searching of the conscience, for humility of spirit, for the heartfelt prayer of the whole people for light, for guidance, for strength, for sanity, for that passion for righteousness which consumes all vainglory, pride, scorn, arrogance, and trust in the things that perish:

"Almighty God, who in former time leddest our fathers forth into a wealthy place, and didst set their feet in a large room, give Thy grace, we humbly beseech Thee, to us their children, that we may always approve ourselves a people mindful

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of Thy favors and glad to do Thy will. Bless our land with honorable industry, sound learning, and pure manners. Defend our liberties; preserve our unity. Save us from violence, discord, and confusion, from pride and arrogance, and from every evil way. Fashion into one happy people the multitude brought hither out of many kindreds and tongues. Endue with the spirit of wisdom those whom we intrust in Thy name with the authority of governance, to the end that there may be peace at home, and that we keep our place among the nations of the earth. In the time of our prosperity, temper our self-confidence with thankfulness, and in the day of trouble suffer not our trust in Thee to fail."

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Concerning Tariff Revision

The series of interviews with New England men on the question of tariff revision, which we print on another page, is not only interesting but instructive. The variety of views is so great and the contradictions are so absolute and irreconcilable that the first impression of the reader will be that they really shed no light on the problem. Further reflection will perhaps change his mind. For they afford a striking demonstration of an indubitable fact, and one which constitutes the most serious of the objections to the protective system. This is that a protective tariff is never framed by disinterested statesmen studying only two problems—first, how to raise with the least difficulty and the greatest advantage the largest revenue for the Government; and, second, how to promote by wise adjustment of conflicting interests the industrial prosperity of the Nation: it is always framed by a series of agreements, according to which each individual interest hopes to secure an industrial advantage through Governmental action preventing foreign competition. In other words, the protective system endeavors to secure the general good by the conflict of selfish interests. As one result, however general the conviction may be that some modification of the tariff is necessary, there is never an agreement as to what that modification shall be. The woolen manufacturer wants cheap wools and protected cloths; the Vermont farmer wants protected wool and cheap wire-fencing; the shoe manufacturer wants cheap hides and protected shoes; the stock-raiser wants protected calfskins and cheap clothing—and so through the entire list. Every consumer wants to buy what he consumes at the cheapest possible price; every producer wants to sell what he produces at the highest possible price. So every one is in favor of a tariff revision, and no two trades can agree as to what the tariff revision shall be.

The net result of these New England interviews and the Western interviews published five weeks ago in The Outlook is to indicate that the hope of any adequate changes in our tariff system lies only in one of two directions: one, the overthrow of the entire protective system and the substitution of the principle tariff for revenue only; the other, a National Commission of experts to consider the whole question from the point of view of National welfare, and a report, based solely on that consideration, of a modified tariff adjusted solely to that end. Such a Commission ought not to be, as Senator Frye apparently thinks it would have to be, a bi-partisan Commission. It should be composed as far as possible of men who have neither local, political, nor industrial interests to serve by tariff changes. It should be neither commercial nor political, but scientific. For this reason it should not be a committee of either House or Senate. The principle of tariff for revenue only will certainly not be adopted at present by the Republican party, and past experience indicates that there is very little reason to think that it will be honestly adopted and lived up to by the Democratic party. The only alternative is a scientific, non-political Tariff Commission. For we do not believe that the American people will long consent to pay from twenty to forty per cent. more for American goods than foreign people pay for them, or will be satisfied with such haphazard tariff-tinkering as results from a struggle between the stronger and the weaker business interests as represented in the lobby, a struggle the effect of which is almost sure to give protection where it is least needed, if not also to withhold it where it is most needed.

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A "Reform" Without a Principle

Third Assistant Postmaster-General Madden, whose term of office has been distinguished by a succession of decisions denying various publications the right to be mailed as second-class matter—and thereby requiring them to pay eight cents a pound instead of one cent—proposes in his annual report, just submitted, a new system by which all monthly and quarterly publications shall be denied the one cent a pound rate, but be accorded a new rate of four cents a pound. This new rate he proposes to extend also to books, which are now subject to a charge of eight cents a pound, and also to merchandise, which is now subject to the exorbitant charge of sixteen cents a pound. The latter part of his proposal—the part reducing the rate upon books and merchandise—is thoroughly just, and, according to an eminent ex-Postmaster-General, would long since have been enacted into law "but for three reasons: the Adams Express Company, the American Express Company, and the Wells, Fargo Express Company." These express companies carry packages as far as the "average" piece of mail matter is sent—a little over four hundred miles—for a dollar and a quarter a hundred pounds; and there is no good reason why the Post-Office Department should charge eight dollars a hundred, as it does for books, and sixteen dollars a hundred, as it does for merchandise. If the Government received the same rates from the railroads that the express companies receive, its profit from this service would be extremely large.

But this proposed reduction in the postal rates for books and merchandise is not financially the important part of the new recommendations. The important part is the exclusion from the second-class mail of all publications "except daily, tri-weekly, semi-weekly, and weekly newspapers." These excepted newspapers, which wield a powerful political influence, are to retain the privilege of being mailed at one cent a pound, but monthly magazines, which do a higher educational work but do not wield great political influence, are to be charged four cents a pound. The "Century Magazine," for example, weighs about a pound and a quarter per copy. At present it can be mailed for a cent and a quarter, or fifteen cents a year. Under the proposed rule the rate would be five cents a copy, or sixty cents a year. The ten-cent magazines, such as "McClure's," are nearly as heavy, and the proposed charge would almost double the entire cost of their publication. The injustice of such a quadrupling of postal rates for periodicals of this class does not need to be demonstrated, and we trust that the daily and weekly newspapers will not remain silent respecting it because their own privileges are not attacked. There should be the same rate for printed matter of every class—monthly magazines and books being treated as liberally as newspapers. In fact, the whole system of postal rates ought to be simplified and equalized. For our part, we can see no reason for more than three classes of mail matter:

1. Written matter—letters and postal cards.
2. Printed matter of every sort.
3. Merchandise.

If the equalizing of rates upon printed matter requires that the rate charged to newspapers shall be increased or the rates paid to railroads shall be diminished—or both—then by all means let these changes be made. But let us have a system which is based upon some principle of justice.

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Public Education in England

Not in recent times has English opinion been more sharply divided or English feeling more deeply aroused than by the discussion of the Education Bill, which is now absorbing the attention of the Government and of the Opposition night after night in the House of Commons. The bill has good points, and from the strictly educational standpoint registers a definite advance; but it also has very great defects, and, from the democratic point of view, one defect which is fatal.

English education has long been in a state of chaos. Like many other English institutions, it has worked fairly well, but it has been a mass of compromises and tinker-

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ings. There are to-day two rival school systems in England—the Voluntary and the Board Schools. The Voluntary Schools teach more than half the school-going children; more than three million, in round numbers. These schools are under church control, and in them religious instruction is given in accordance with the tenets of the church which controls them; they are supported by grants from the Exchequer, by endowments, and by voluntary contributions. These Voluntary Schools are to be found in all parts of England and Wales. Many of them are better than the best Board Schools; many of them are very inferior, and nearly all of them lack proper facilities. They are not properly lodged, they have not adequate teaching force, the system of pupil-teaching is kept up, and the apparatus of instruction is antiquated and ineffective.

The Board School system, on the other hand, has been established in only about two-thirds of the country, but where established, owing to their superior facilities and their more generous support, these schools show a tendency to supplant the Voluntary Schools. Educational experts declare that in the large towns the Board Schools are the most efficient part of the elementary system. Many of them are very large, they represent a high degree of devotion and of teaching skill, and they have raised the standards of elementary education among the people at large. But of late years, in some places, they have become unwieldy on account of their extreme size, and in such cases the efficiency of the school has been reduced, and there is a tendency, such as is evident in many American public schools, to substitute mechanical for vital instruction, and routine work for the vital work of the individual teacher. The rural Board Schools have by no means been so successful as the town schools. Many of them are poor, and it is affirmed that the worst elementary schools in the country districts are to be found among the rural Board Schools.

All public elementary schools, whether Voluntary or under the direction of the Board, are supervised by the Board of Education, from which they receive a varying support by Parliamentary grant. In addition, the Board Schools receive certain sums out of the rates or taxes, and these sums are much greater in amount than the sums received by subscription to the Voluntary Schools. The result is that the Board Schools are very much better supported on a very much more substantial basis than the Voluntary Schools.

The only education higher than that of the elementary schools which is now given at the public expense is also managed under two different systems: the Technical Day and Evening Schools, supported by county and municipal councils, and the Higher Grade and Evening Continuation Schools, supported by the School Boards, each system being supervised by a different branch of the Education Department, each school drawing upon the Exchequer. The work of the School Boards in these higher schools is very largely limited to the more important towns where Higher Grade Schools have been established, giving gratuitous instruction supported by money drawn by the rates, and many of them preparing pupils for the university. The Evening Continuation Schools are also open without charge to all persons; and, in addition to instruction, furnish amusement. In these schools all the materials are supplied without charge. In many cases the schools of the higher grades supported by the municipalities and those supported by the School Boards overlap and are in conflict, with the result of a waste of money and an attempt to secure pupils by means of popularizing subjects and methods of teaching.

It was to bring order out of this chaos that the Education Bill was devised, and there is no doubt that Mr. Balfour intended and expects to make, by securing the passage of the bill, a definite advance towards unity, simplicity, and higher efficiency; for, under the pressure of economic competition and with the near example of the great commercial success of Germany as the result of more thorough education, the English are feeling keenly the necessity of putting the education of the nation on a better basis.

The Education Bill is so complicated that any elaborate statement of its provisions would be unprofitable for American readers. Its strength and its weakness may be pointed out, however, by detaching

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from a mass of details its essential principles.

The bill enacts that the council of every county and of every county borough shall be the local education authority. All the powers and duties of the old school boards are transferred to this county council, and the old school boards are abolished. Thus both the Voluntary or Parish Schools and the Board Schools are brought under the general authority of the county council. But the county council does not manage the schools. It appoints Boards of Managers for that purpose. The Voluntary School is left under the control of the parish council as its Board of Managers, though the county council may appoint additional managers not exceeding one-third of the whole number; thus the Voluntary School remains under parochial control.

The Board School may be continued or not in the discretion of the county council; but if continued, the parish council is to appoint not more than one-third of the Board of Managers of such schools. Thus the Parish Schools will be under the control of the parochial authorities, with a possible minority representation not parochial, and the Board Schools will be under the control of a body of managers which may or may not be composed of parochial officers. Both schools are equally to be supported out of the rates—that is, by public taxation. The county council has no power to exclude or to prohibit any particular form of religious instruction or worship in the institutions for higher education. We judge that it has no such power respecting any of the schools.

It is claimed for this bill by its advocates that it simplifies organization, puts an end to the present double system with its lack of coherence, its overlapping, its duplicated expenditures, and its inevitable rivalries. In each community there is to be one controlling body, with large power of so adjusting expenditures as to provide education in accordance with the needs of the locality.

The chief objections to the bill are two: first, that two classes of schools are still continued in England—one religious, one secular. Thus the unifying influence of a truly common school system is lost. In many localities the denominational dissensions in the community will be intensified; in others the children of Nonconformist parents will be practically compelled, if they go to school at all, to go where they will receive religious instruction which their parents do not approve. In some few instances religious rituals have been introduced into the parochial schools which children, at least, would not be able to distinguish from those employed in Roman Catholic worship. These cases we judge are very exceptional, but much stress is laid upon them as illustrating the vicious principle inherent in the bill.

The second objection is that while the money is publicly raised by public taxation, it is to be expended by Boards of Managers over which, in the case of Voluntary Schools, the public can exercise no control; over which, in the case of the other schools, the public can exercise only indirect control. As two-thirds of the Voluntary Schools are under the direction of the Church of England, it is obvious that, under the Education Bill, the nation is to be taxed to support schools which are under the direction of the clergy of the English Church. This has always been done, to a certain extent; but under the provisions of the Education Bill the clergy of the Established Church, while maintaining their former control, would be largely relieved of its financial responsibility, and that responsibility will be saddled upon the public.

It is the Government proposal to tax the nation for the support of the schools of the Church of England which has not only aroused fierce opposition among the Nonconformists, but which seems to violate the principle that representation and taxation should go together. The opposition to the bill has not been very definitely organized nor very strongly directed, but it has been based on both grounds—the religious and the civil. Lord Rosebery stated, however, the fundamental ground of opposition when, in a recent speech, he declared that if the nation pays for the schools the nation must control the schools. To Americans this seems a self-evident proposition; but in England the principle that public education must be free from all church control has not been accepted as axiomatic even among the Nonconformists.

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The Spectator

The Spectator wishes that Mr. Jacob Riis would publish a companion volume to his "Children of the Poor" entitled "The Poor Little Children of the Rich." Theoretically it is a fine thing to be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth. But, unfortunately, a good many other things appear to go along with the spoon. At home the Spectator sees little save the brightness of the spoons and the radiant well-being of their little proprietors. But this fall a prolonged visit to a typical Middle-Western city, where a little grandson acted as guide, philosopher, and friend, gave him a generous glimpse of the reverse of the shield. An exclusive private school—one of the pedagogically inerrant variety—flourished in the neighborhood, and past the Spectator's window every morning filed the little sons and daughters of the rich, on their way to be scientifically educated.

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President Stanley Hall is wont to say that the most beautiful thing in the world is the look of wonder on a little child's face. It must grieve him to see that look passing from the faces of the children of the rich. When the Spectator was a youngster, he went about in a delicious maze of his own imagining, quite absorbed in his personal pursuits, and humbly mystified with the game his elders were playing. If anything mystifies the little plutocrats of to-day—save, perhaps, the processes of arithmetic—the Spectator does not know what it is. An ultra-modern, ultra-expensive education skims for them the cream of every subject under heaven and serves it up in predigested form, so that before they are fairly out of the kindergarten they have pried into the choicest secrets of science, and are *blasé* for the rest of their educational careers. They are, moreover, no respecters of the marvels of the age. The telephone—which still occasionally puts the Spectator out of countenance—is to them merely a convenient necessity by which to summon their friends to come and play. The "auto" is a "chestnut;" the graphophone a worn-out toy; the mechanical piano-player no more to be wondered at than the hurdy-gurdy on the pavement. Current topics, too, are quite within their ken. At an age when the Spectator's pockets bulged with "traders" and his whole soul was bound up in picture-cards, this grandson and his budding contemporaries discuss the coal situation. And they discuss it so glibly, with such offhand use of sounding English, that it is not even naïvely amusing, but merely grotesque.

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Listen, you who are murmuring "old fogy" under your breath, listen to three short but pregnant tales. Past the Spectator's window one morning loitered two chubby little lads, their arms round each other's necks. The Spectator thought to himself what a pretty picture of childish unsophistication they made. When they spoke, however, he caught his breath. "I won three dollars yesterday," remarked the younger of the two, who may possibly have been eight. "Honest? How?" demanded the other, big-eyed. "Oh, my father and I bet on a race, and my horse won," was the nonchalant reply. Before the Spectator had fairly recovered from the staggering effect of this speech, a group of little girls drew up before the house. One of the littlest of them was in difficulties with her hair, which had been dressed in some occult feminine fashion beyond the Spectator's power to describe, and had slipped its ribbon. As an older girl struggled to reduce it to order, she said, remonstratingly, "What makes you try to wear it this way, Gladys? It's much too short." The little tot turned on her a withering glance. "It's the *fashion!*" she exclaimed, with crushing finality. To these disclosures of unblinking sophistication may be added the tale of a neighbor whose little boy is just six. He had hoped to keep the child unconscious that he is the heir of millions, and had brought him up in the strictest simplicity. And yet, the other night, as he climbed on his father's knee for a good-night kiss, he electrified the father by demanding, "Papa, *how much are you worth?*"

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The Spectator entertains a profound respect for the little people who come through the ordeal of a moneyed childhood unspoiled. From his window he has, in spite of himself, witnessed many a high-

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handed altercation between long-suffering nurses and their autocratic young charges, and the commanding tone and gestures of the little overlords convinced him afresh that it is not well to be made too early "one in authority." He has heard, too, the subtle or outspoken flattery with which the children were plied by grown people who ought certainly to have known better. And he was not surprised that some of them acquired the impression that the world was their private football, nor that they adopted toward the rest of the earth's inhabitants a manner which was, to say the least, cavalier. That many of them did so opine and so proceed, the Spectator had abundant opportunity to attest. While he stood inoffensively upon his own doorstep one day, a little miss—the child of a money king—approached him and demanded, without any sort of preamble, "Have you got my kitten?" "Madam," said the Spectator, lifting his hat, "do I look as if I had your kitten?" The young person smiled a trifle uneasily. "No," she said, "but she's lost, and I thought you might have seen her. If you do," she went on, recovering herself completely, "if you do, you may send her to 445 Blank Street." With these words she turned on her heel and departed. The Spectator verily believes she expected him to make dutiful note of the address.

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It has long been one of the Spectator's pet theories that the unkindest consequence of being born rich was that one was not permitted to live the strenuous, and therefore zestful, life. He has watched with compassion the development of a typical case—a little lad who has been so tended and waited upon from his cradle up that he does not care so much as to play save by proxy. Nurse must build the block house and dig the sand tunnel, while her young dictator looks on and commands her to "do it adain." The Spectator has often longed to steal the defrauded little fellow and teach him the solid satisfaction of hard work.

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Having seen so much, the Spectator fancied he had probed to the root of the matter. A recent encounter has opened his eyes. He went for a stroll on a Saturday morning, crisp with a dash of frost, and overtook a neighbor's child, a handsome, clever lad of ten years. Under his arm was thrust a music-roll. Now, the Spectator has always mourned his own hopeless unfamiliarity with the keyboard, so he congratulated the little fellow warmly on his superior advantages. "Humph!" grunted the lad, his brow puckering. "*I* don't like it. It's too much like work. Got a new pony, too," he went on, mournfully, "but that's all the good it does a fellow. It's a dandy morning for a ride, but I've got to take this old *music* lesson!" and he rapped his music-roll crossly against a tree. By way of comfort the Spectator suggested that he might ride in the afternoon. "Humph!" was the contemptuous reply. "A lot you know about it. I've got to take a drawing-lesson before lunch and go to dancing-school after lunch. By the time I've practiced my violin it'll be pitch dark." He broke off with a desperate gesture. "Hullo!" said the Spectator; "seems to me you're pretty busy for a small man." The boy responded with a glance of fine scorn. "Oh, *that's* not all!" he cried. "Let me see; there's a violin lesson every morning before school (sub-teacher, you know), and piano right after school, if I don't get kept *after*. Then Mam'selle comes to teach us French, and we do burnt-wood with Mr. Saunders. That's all except drawing, and dancing-school, and gymnasium. Oh, and choir-practice. It's no cinch, I can tell *you!*" he finished as we parted.

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When the Spectator reported that pitiful tale at home, he was told that while that child was little the breath of heaven was scarcely permitted to blow upon him. Yet now, in their anxiety to possess for him all the good things of the earth, his parents load him with duties till he is little better than a galley-slave. Nature fortunately protects him, in a measure, by rendering him impervious to most things that are "too much like work." Otherwise one might fear for his mental health. But because his parents are rich enough to buy him limitless privileges, he is robbed of that freedom which is the divine right of childhood. And yet he belongs—oh, the irony of it!—he belongs to the leisure class!

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NEW ENGLAND AND THE TARIFF

Interviews with Manufacturers, Politicians, Journalists, and Teachers, by a Staff Correspondent of The Outlook

SENATOR, in your opinion ought there to be a revision of our tariff?

"What is there wrong with our present tariff?" replied the Hon. William P. Frye, of Maine, perhaps the best known of ultra-protectionists. "Did we ever enjoy greater prosperity than now? Possibly some duties may be higher than are necessary, but in consideration of this aspect of the case it must be remembered that a duty operates both as a protection and a prevention. Let me illustrate. There has been for many years a high duty on cheap cotton goods, continued even in the Wilson Tariff, and yet we can probably compete with the world in the manufacture of these goods, so the duty is not needed for the encouragement of capital or the protection of labor; but if Manchester should have a surplus of millions of yards and this duty were removed, that surplus would be dumped on our wharves, sold sometimes for less than cost, to the injury of our manufacturers and their employees. However, if to do this Manchester must pay the duty, the dumping will not occur. It does not follow, if a duty is too high or even unnecessary under the theory of protection, that it must be reduced or repealed. The duty on these cheaper cotton goods does not increase the price to the consumer or affect injuriously any one in the country."

But is there not, Senator, a very general demand for the revision of our tariff?

"So far as my own State is concerned, I hear of no such demand. Possibly it may exist elsewhere. In my opinion, it comes from a fear of trusts, so called, and from a wish to punish them. Now, no repeal of the duty on the products of a trust can be had without at the same time repealing it as to the like products of all of the trust competitors, and this would probably result in the ruin of the latter, leaving the trust the sole survivor, and might indeed benefit it by making it really a monopoly. In my judgment, no revision of the tariff should be threatened when business is good and the country prosperous. Let Congress enter upon such a general revision, and it will be disastrous to both."

Senator, do you favor a Tariff Commission?

"I do not think such a Commission necessary, or that it would be particularly useful. Under modern usage it would be non-partisan, constituted possibly of five members—three protectionists and two free-traders—and would result in two reports, a majority and a minority, each by evidence and argument striving to maintain its views. We had a Commission in 1882–3, and it made its report to Congress, but the Finance Committee of the Senate and the Ways and Means Committee of the House disregarded it, and reported to the two Houses their own conclusions. I am not prepared to say that such a Commission would have any advantage over the Congressional Committees having jurisdiction of the subject."

Are we likely to have a reciprocity treaty with Canada?

"In my judgment, no. We once had one, with benefit to Canada and little or none to us. When, under its terms, notice to abrogate could be given, I offered a resolution in the Senate requesting the President to give the notice, and it was adopted without division; notice was given and the treaty abrogated. Many attempts have been made since in this direction without success. If Canada were an independent government, probably reciprocal trade relations could be established by treaty; but Great Britain has the final say in these regards, and she will never consent to any reciprocity between Canada and the United States which shall give the latter any advantage in Canada's markets for our manufactured products over hers. To us, a treaty which will not accomplish this is worthless. Our relations with Canada now are cordial and our trade extensive."

Now about the pending reciprocity treaties—will they be ratified?

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"In my opinion, not more than half of them, and those of little importance. The trouble generally is that the purchase of a favor requires the payment of a price, and the industry which is to pay this price enters its protest. The Argentine Republic will grant us about anything if we will give her free wool, but the farmers of our country resist this most vigorously. The treaty as to Jamaica reduces the duty on fruits; thereupon Florida and California claim that this would bring to them fearful disaster. The French treaty reduces the duties on knit goods, cheap jewelry, etc.—New England resists; and so it goes. Our Presidents favor reciprocity which shall not injure our own industries, but where can that manner of reciprocity be found?"

A MAINE EDITOR'S VIEW

The name Dingley is inseparately connected with our present tariff. No one can speak from a more intimately personal standpoint of its author than Mr. Frank L. Dingley, brother of the late Congressman Nelson Dingley, and strikingly resembling that lamented and upright statesman both in face and manner. Mr. Dingley is the editor of the only really able Maine newspaper, the Lewiston "Journal." Among other valuable bits of information which he gave me was the following:

The Dingley tariff has now justified itself; it needs no apologies. But new times bring new conditions, and, though the Dingley tariff was the best legislation to be accomplished in 1897, certain incongruities may now be found in it. Some schedules now seem to be less necessary than others. A few are not necessary at all. One was never necessary—the hides schedule, against which Congressman Dingley vainly labored. He also fought the sugar monopoly. His tariff bill was not for an instant any matter of personal aggrandizement to him; he might have died a rich man by betraying his trust. He labored for the incorporation of the principle of protection, in which, in common with all Maine Republicans, he thoroughly believed. This did not prevent him from recognizing the value of particular foreign markets when, in the words of the late President McKinley, they would not interfere with home markets. The reciprocity system was the result. As a reciprocal commodity with Canada, coal forms an item which is now attracting much attention, and is, perhaps, as practicable and feasible a commodity on which to establish reciprocity with Canada as any; in fact, Congressman Dingley spoke to that effect to me in this very office. Along with the mass of Maine Republicans, I should deprecate any immediate general revision of the tariff; it would crucify both labor and industry. President Roosevelt's idea of a tariff commission, however, is a good one. The commission will probably be empowered at the coming session of Congress, and I think should report not later than January 1, 1904.

SHIP SUBSIDIES AND THE TARIFF

Among Maine ship-builders, no one is probably better known throughout the United States than is Mr. Harold M. Sewall, of Bath. In common with every Republican whom I saw in Maine, he said that there is no widespread sentiment for tariff revision among Republicans in that State, but he maintained that, in his vicinity, there is naturally a sentiment in favor of ship subsidies, and that it is by no means confined to those opposed to tariff revision. Towards Canadian reciprocity the sentiment in Maine is not generally favorable, he thought, because if such reciprocity would benefit some industries, it would destroy others. Mr. Sewall did not regard the tariff commission proposal as an evasion, but said that it might be opposed for other reasons.——A Portland official coincided in Mr. Sewall's view that a number of tariff revisionists are also in favor of ship subsidies, and told me that tariff revision sentiment was more evident in Portland than in any other part of the State; a revision in those articles wherein the margin between the cost of production and the importing point is too large, and gives to manufacturers undue profit at the expense of the consumer, as, for instance, in sugar, tobacco, and paper.——On the other hand, President Hyde, of Bowdoin, thought that few tariff revisionists would favor ship subsidies. He added: "There is little sentiment in favor of Canadian reciprocity in Maine, owing to local conditions, though there are special industries which would be greatly benefited by such reciprocity. I fear the sentiment for tariff revision is not widespread among Republicans in this State. Many of them recognize the importance of revision at particular points, but fear the effect of raising the general question. I think there is no demand for a special session of Congress to consider the removal of special duties; and the proposal for a tariff commission is not taken seriously by either Republicans or Democrats."——Professor Callender, who has

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the chair of Economics and Sociology at Bowdoin, added:

The lumber and wood-pulp industries are the most important in Maine; and both are averse to Canadian competition. Then, too, the potato industry was greatly benefited by the duty of twenty-five cents per bushel on potatoes, and would not care to lose it for any commercial gain likely to accrue to the State from reciprocity or tariff revision. Personally, I do not think reciprocity with Canada would help the lumber industry of New England, though it would help every one who *uses* lumber in New England, as it could be brought in cheaper from Canada. Free coal from the Canadian provinces would help to develop an iron industry here, no doubt; and if free iron ore were allowed to come in from Cuba, the conditions which make for cheap production of iron along the coast would be supplied—namely, the ability to assemble your materials by cheap water transportation.

FROM PAPER AND PULP MAKERS

As we jogged along on the train going north from Portland, I tried to absorb some first-hand information from two paper manufacturers. One of them was actually building an enormous plant in the Province of Quebec, and said he was doing so, first, to secure water-power—there being now no such opportunities in Maine; secondly, to secure Canadian spruce lands to furnish raw material for pulp and paper mills at less cost than would be the case in the United States. American mills are now almost entirely dependent upon Canada for the supply of pulp wood. The other man said:

Canada's policy is not to let any pulp go out of the Dominion until it is manufactured into paper. This, in addition to what you have just heard, has stimulated the building by Americans of factories in Canada. The manufacturer can stand the tariff, but if it were removed our own people would really be benefited, and the Canadians too, by reason of greater centralization and economy, and the consequent lessening of the price to the consumer. One reason why paper is high is because wood is high. I paid between eleven and twelve dollars last week for that which cost me only eight dollars only a few years ago. Yet the paper business is expanding right here—the International Company manufactures fifteen hundred tons per day, for instance. Our greatest source of wealth in this State, you know, is not in forests, but in water-power, of which there is no more for sale. The Rumford Falls alone can furnish one hundred thousand horse-power.

VERMONT AND CANADA

It is not such a far cry from Maine to Vermont, certainly not politically. I found the two States standing shoulder to shoulder as far as Republicanism and protectionism were concerned. First of all, in Vermont I sought Mr. G. G. Benedict, the veteran editor of the Burlington "Free Press," a man who, in appearance and manner, reminds one of his former neighbor, Senator Edmunds. Mr. Benedict is justly regarded as a foremost authority on all public questions, especially where his State is a particularly interested party. Sitting in his library, looking out over the attractive campus of the University of Vermont, Mr. Benedict thus summed up the situation:

Vermont has always been a strong Republican State and firmly protectionist, under the lead of such National forces in statesmanship as Edmunds and Morrill—the latter well called the Father of Modern Protection. Vermont remains Republican and protectionist to-day, and will so remain. We agreed with President McKinley and with President Roosevelt in favoring concessions to Cuba, but I do not know of any prevailing sentiment in the State for general tariff revision or for Canadian reciprocity among any class of our citizens except among the Democrats and perhaps on the part of some of the dealers in pine lumber. The owners of the few remaining spruce forests in this State of course still stand for the duty of $2 a thousand square feet; they do not like to meet the competition of Canadian white pine any more than do the owners of the spruce forests in Maine, who were largely responsible for the lumber duty in the Dingley Bill, as I suppose. One reason why Vermont is so strongly protectionist is because we have had object-lessons in protection at close range. Canada is only forty miles away from this town. We once had a reciprocal treaty with Canada, the results of which were unsatisfactory to our farmers. They rejoiced when it was abrogated. They do not favor any treaty or law which brings their farm products into strong competition with the agricultural products of Canada, produced by the cheap labor of the Canadian *habitants*. Vermont is overwhelmingly an agricultural State. Our farms are not wheat farms. They are mostly dairy farms, and are among the finest of any, for our hill slopes are of the greenest and our water of the purest. But these advantages would be largely lost if brought into competition with the low prices of Canadian butter, hay, horses, etc., all much cheaper there than here.

As he looked out of his office window on some evidences of good crops, Representative D. J. Foster, of the First Congressional District of Vermont, and a strong Republican, remarked to me: "This being an agricultural State, any criticisms of the tariff are apt to be those affecting farming interests. The only criticism of

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much pertinence which I have heard has been that made by farmers who did not like the tariff of fifteen per cent. on beef hides and of no per cent. on calfskins. However much Western cattle-raisers and Chicago packers might be benefited by the first, there is certainly no benefit to the Vermont farmer in his particular cattle-raising industry. Aside from this the only noticeable criticism of the tariff has come from certain lumber-dealers and from a good many lumber-consumers. If spruce and pine schedules were reduced, we would have not only cheaper building material, but cheaper paper. However, the Dingley tariff has fully justified the faith of those who enacted it. Under it our industrial development has been such as the world has never seen. . . . But new conditions have arisen. Some of our 'infant industries' have now become giants, and certain monopolies seem to be aided in their oppression of the people by the tariff. Hence the Republican party is now called upon to consider the question of revising schedules. This is called an advanced position in Vermont, but many of my constituents have congratulated me on taking it."——The manager of the J. R. Booth lumber establishment, one of the largest in the world, thus commented upon current tariff criticisms as they were connected with his industry:

Judging from the talk you hear, one would naturally think that Canadian lumber manufacturers are trying to have the duty removed from lumber. It is not so. When the American Government imposed the $2 duty on lumber, it forced the Canadians to see if they could not place their lumber in other markets to better advantage. The result was that a new market was discovered, and Canadians began to export more than ever. Now that there is a shortage of lumber in this country, in order to get Canadian lumber Americans are obliged not only to pay the duty but a large advance besides in order even to get a partial supply. Canadian manufacturers are readily disposing of their cuts, duty or no duty. Reduce the duty, however, and you reduce the price to every consumer. The tariff on lumber is exorbitant, and the American people are paying for it. Newspaper men, for instance, who at one time clamored for a tariff on all kinds of lumber, have just discovered that it advances the price on spruce pulp used in the manufacture of their paper, consequently reducing their profit. Now they think that this tariff should be modified so far as it affects them, but that it still should remain on pine lumber. It occurs to me that, if it is policy to reduce the tariff on pulp in order to aid the newspapers, it would be better to reduce it on all lumber, thereby aiding the poorer classes everywhere.

A VERMONT DEMOCRAT

Among Vermont Democrats the Hon. B. B. Smalley occupies a similar position to that of Mr. Benedict among Republicans. Mr. Smalley gave to me a detailed account of the position of his party, and as regards his own State said that—

Vermont is, and has been for many years, overwhelmingly Republican. There are only twenty thousand Democrats in the State. Vermont has been for high tariff since 1842. In former days Vermont merino wool meant something, but there is very little wool raised now. I remember a lawsuit in the late sixties to recover a sum of no less than $20,000 for the loss of a single sheep; and what is more, the plaintiff got judgment. There were plenty of sheep sold at sums from $5,000 to $10,000. But the wool-raising hereabouts gradually declined, and ten years ago became practically nothing. We are now interested, not in wool-raising, but in wool-manufacturing. There are, for instance, our mills at Winooski, which use imported wool largely. Of course free wool would help our factories here, but would it be quite fair to the wool-growers of Montana? If our tariff were only constructed on the plan of the greatest good to the greatest number, then we should have free wool; but each interested producer or manufacturer persists in thinking that the greater number means Number One. There are, however, two kinds of wool which we cannot grow at all in America; and hence there is special reason why they should be on the free list—namely, carpet wools and the finest grade of wool grown in Australia. Carpet wools come from South America. In my opinion, the duty on all wools should be reduced.

CONNECTICUT AGRICULTURE

A representative New England farmer is Mr. Rollin C. Newton, of Woodbridge, Conn. He said:

My State is not so well off agriculturally as it was before the days of railways. Once we raised our own beef here and sent our cattle out as far as Boston; now the railways bring beef to us from Chicago, and we produce scarcely any. Once a man might take a load of wood from here to New Haven, and some one would surely come along and buy it. I have heard Governor English tell how, when he was a builder and wanted a bill of lumber, he would come out here for it; now it comes from hundreds and thousands of miles away. Those were the good old days for the Connecticut farmer. The railway has destroyed them, but who would have them back at the expense of what the railway has been to the whole country? So it is with protection. As a farmer and consumer I have to sacrifice something for it, but I think the

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whole country has been immensely benefited by it. The farmer has been benefited by it too, though not so much now as formerly. Take the duty on hay, for instance; it is responsible for some of the good prices which we have been getting, and if there were a similar duty on calfskins (to match the duty on cowhides) we might be getting better prices for them too. Where the tariff hurts us is in the development of monopolies. For instance, we feel their oppression in the case of barbed or fence wire. The present price is too high for the farmer to pay if he undertakes to raise sheep. They cannot be raised in this State because fencing is too dear, and fencing is necessary to keep the many dogs out of the sheep-fields. If the duty were removed, we farmers think we ought to get our fences just so much cheaper. We could then afford to keep sheep. Agricultural Connecticut would be doubled in value, because much of the State is really fit for nothing but sheep-grazing.

MANUFACTURING CONNECTICUT

Connecticut echoes the sentiment of Maine and Vermont to "let well enough alone." Mr. F. W. Gordon, Manager of the great Pratt & Whitney Company, of Hartford, said:

As manufacturers of machine tools, we would of course like free coal and free iron. We have to consider, however, whether we would gain or lose more by such a reduction in the tariff. What we would gain in the way of economizing manufacture would probably be much more than lost in antagonizing markets on which we now rely, the markets composed of those who rely for their own incomes on the coal and iron producing industries and also composed of those indirectly related to those industries. We could not afford to lose those markets, even though we had free coal and free iron. As the tariff is thus composed of so many divergent interests, I and those associated with me would deprecate any general revision at the present time.

Mr. Arthur Reed Kimball, associate editor of the Waterbury "American," and a well-known magazine writer, thus summed up the situation in the "Brass City"—for at Waterbury are located the largest manufactories of brass goods in the world. What Mr. Kimball says about Waterbury is equally true of most Connecticut manufacturing centers:

So far as I know, there is absolutely no interest taken in tariff questions among our manufacturers, except as the tariff and the trusts may be political issues. I never hear the subject of the tariff mentioned, and if I bring it up, it is quickly dropped again. Business life in Waterbury is so strenuous that its manufacturers live from day to day with little regard for problems in the large. On the other hand, it should be noted that Mr. Lilley, a Waterbury man who ran for the position of Congressman-at-Large and was elected, promised to vote to take the tax off anthracite coal and also to vote to take the tax off any trust which was a monopoly. As he himself had been largely interested in the meat business, being the representative of Swift & Co., he may have made this declaration as a merely defensive one, because he was attacked by the Democrats as a trust agent. This circumstance has, however, some significance, I suppose, perhaps as indicating the beginning of a certain popular drift in Connecticut on the tariff question.

Dr. Henry W. Farnam, Professor of Politics at the Sheffield Scientific School, Yale University, spoke as follows:

My impression is that, while the sentiment in favor of a revision of the tariff is not very pronounced on account of the cautious and conservative temperament of many of our business men and their strong attachment to the Republican party, the feeling that the tariff needs reduction is sufficiently general to give a strong support to any leader of Republican antecedents who should declare himself in favor of it. Our experience with the Constitutional Convention may illustrate this. The very suggestion of such a convention was met with derision until Governor McLean took it up, when it was easily passed by the Legislature. A non-partisan tariff commission might be used merely as a means of delaying action, but we can hardly expect Congress under present conditions to move rapidly at best, and the work of the Industrial Commission, which was so largely conducted by economic experts, encourages me to believe that a tariff commission at the present day would accomplish much more in the way of gathering information and helping to mold public opinion than the Commission of 1882.

WOOL AND IRON

Mr. Rowland G. Hazard, of Peacedale, R. I. (that model little town), the noted manufacturer of woolens, said:

In my opinion, the tariff commission proposal is the only reasonable suggestion which has been made, and I hope it will prevail. I am certain that many men, entirely unallied with political parties, have reasoned for themselves that to subject the tariff to such political action as it has always heretofore received at the hands of Congress is not only absurd, but surpassingly idiotic. When we consider that the American people are supposed to have a genius for business, is it not amazing that, in respect to a business matter like the tariff, they should have been willing for all of these years to submit to the wire-pulling of politicians? It ought to have been taken out of politics years and years ago. It has been retained in politics, as I believe, largely because it furnished the politicians of the worst sort with the means of extracting blood-money from manufacturers and others, themselves not above criticism. I do not believe that it is possible to work a greater injury to

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the business interests of any country than to alter the terms upon which business is done, unless such alteration is extended over a sufficient period enough to allow adjustment of the change involved, and readjustment of the new order of things to come; and I thoroughly believe that a permanent tariff commission is the only way by which such change can be wisely made. I am not a Democrat, though I voted for Cleveland. You may infer that I am a free-trader, but I am not a radical.

Another Rhode Island manufacturer, Mr. Henry D. Sharpe, of the Brown & Sharpe Manufacturing Company, thus expressed himself:

As far as the sentiment of our manufacturers for tariff revision is concerned, I am not aware that it is very pronounced, though I do recognize the feeling that existing conditions might be bettered. Personally, I am in favor of a general treaty of reciprocity with Canada. As far as our own manufacture of machinery is concerned, a tariff duty such as is imposed by Canada upon American machinery is prohibitive. A period of practical free trade, reached by a gradual and sensible reduction of the tariff, would not deteriorate actual wages. The cost of living would undoubtedly be reduced, but markets would be retained because of the ingenuity of American designers and of the capabilities of American workmen.

With these utterances may be contrasted a statement from the great Republican leader in Rhode Island. No United States Senator is shrewder in judgment or defter in action than is Nelson W. Aldrich, a distinguished student of statistics, a real but never a noisy power in debate, a consummate politician, and one whose influence in the Senate has been conceded by his political opponents as well as by his political friends to be second to none. He thus discoursed to me on conditions as affected by the tariff:

So far as I know, there is no very widespread sentiment among Rhode Island Republicans in favor of tariff revision. There is, of course, the usual opposition to protective legislation and a limited sympathy with all open or concealed attempts to destroy the protective system by general or special lines of attack, but nothing more. The recent election had no significance in this respect. The feeling of Rhode Island Republicans is, as I understand it, that whenever the tariff needs reforming the friends of protection should be ready to do it, but that they should not act on slight pretexts or in answer to any mere partisan demand. Material and permanent industrial changes, however, may demand a revision of certain schedules. Conditions change, of course, and our tariff should be made to suit existing conditions so soon as it can indubitably be shown that the new conditions imperatively demand a change. The duties on coal will undoubtedly be among the first to be considered whenever any revision of tariff rates is attempted. Great changes in transportation and in other conditions have taken place since the Act of 1897 was passed, which will make this consideration necessary. Whenever a general revision of the tariff takes place, it will, in my judgment, be in the interest of the protective system, which will be maintained, strengthened, and extended.

A SELF-MADE MAN

The most picturesque character in the State of New Hampshire must assuredly be Mayor John Pender, of Portsmouth—a capital type of a self-made man—and I found that his position on the tariff is in advance of many Republicans in the State. From my conversation with him I remember the following sentences:

My early years, spent in the factory, were enough to instill into my mind the principles of protection, and I have long been its ardent advocate. Nevertheless, I have not at any time lost sight of the idea that the ultimate goal of protection is free trade. In my opinion, the time has arrived when there should be tariff revision. Ideas of protection which were proper enough a quarter of a century ago have been outgrown in the progress of the trade of the world. Our "infants" whom we strove to protect are becoming old enough to stand alone. Our country is becoming strong enough to hold its place unaided in the business of nations; and refusal to recognize that a revision of the existing tariff is safe and expedient is to deny that strength which is our boast.

MASSACHUSETTS MEN

In eastern Massachusetts Mr. C. T. Crocker, the paper manufacturer of Fitchburg, declared that the removal of duty on Canadian paper would be a serious injury to New England manufacturers, but admitted that free pulp and pulp wood would be a benefit to American mills not grinding their own pulp.——It would not seem that the New England Home Market Club was as protectionist as is often supposed, if one may judge from the opinion of Colonel Albert Clarke, Secretary of the Club and President of the United States Industrial Commission:

Many, perhaps most, of the members of our Club would favor a reciprocal treaty with Canada on the item of coal, and more general reciprocity if the Canadians will offer or consent to equal terms; but there's the rub. As to President Roosevelt's suggestion of a permanent tariff commission, I would say that the educational influence of such a commission would be of benefit to the whole country, and the commission would be very helpful to Congress. This has been the case with the work

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and influence of the Industrial Commission. It had better not, however, embrace members of Congress, for they cannot attend to it when Congress is in session.

Mr. Eugene N. Foss, of Jamaica Plain, Mass., manager of the B. F. Sturtevant Company's iron works, is a man who has leaped into National prominence. As a Republican, he won the nomination from his district for Congress on a platform of "free coal, free hides, free iron, free steel." He would have won the election, too, according to most of those with whom I talked on the subject, but for "knifing" at the polls by Republican ultra-protectionists.

In my own line of business it has been a very serious question as to whether we ought to build a great new factory near Boston. We were told by sincere friends that we ought to remove to Pennsylvania, where proper conditions with reference to raw materials could be had. We have decided to remain here, principally out of consideration for our own force of operatives, who have two claims upon us, not to be disregarded: (1) They represent to a marked degree the superior intelligence and skill of New England labor; (2) many of them have been with us for a very long period.

Now, what we want to do, if possible, is to bring about such a change in present conditions as will give to our industries a fairer chance with those of the rest of the country, and will give to every man who works for us a fairer chance to earn a living. At present neither manufacturer nor workman has this, because New England has no opportunity of using free raw materials. Of course we grow no cotton here, and we have little wool. Our coal, iron, and steel come from Pennsylvania and West Virginia; hence we have to buy our raw material at a distance, transport it here, manufacture it, and then return it West and South for a market. (Under present conditions there is no trade to the North and Northeast, but those conditions should not remain.) Now, how can we compete with the great establishments of the West and South, having raw materials at their very doors?

Primarily we need heat, power, and light for our manufacturing; hence, of the raw materials necessary to us, the most important is coal. It is estimated that New England consumes 60,000,000 tons of bituminous coal every year. If there were no duty on bituminous coal, we would save sixty-seven cents a ton and get it from Nova Scotia, by water. The saving in distance is a great one, but the saving on what we pay to the railway companies traversing Pennsylvania would be far greater. There is a difference in quality between Nova Scotia and Pennsylvania coal, but, even allowing for that difference, New England pays many millions a year more than seems necessary.

Now take the question of hides. The present duty of fifteen per cent. adds about two and one-half cents to the cost of every pair of shoes. Then we need free iron and steel. As manufacturers we pay the trust's price, and spread out the extra amount over our customers. Now, all of my fifteen hundred employees are consumers. They have taught me the meaning of the protective system. Sooner or later this extra price is taken out of them. While we have advanced wages, I must admit that the advance is hardly commensurate with the advance in the cost of living at the present time. We can reduce that cost. If we cannot get free raw materials by a general tariff revision, we certainly ought to do so by Canadian reciprocity. Canada is our third best customer—only Great Britain and Germany being ahead—and as a per capita customer she is actually the best of all we have. Let it not be forgotten that the six million Canadians buy more goods of us than the sixty million population of the nations south of us. While our trade with Canada is to us eminently satisfactory in so far as the balance of trade is concerned, there is already such a tendency in the Dominion to discriminate against our goods on account of Canadian irritation at this balance of trade, that some of our leading manufacturers are locating branch factories simply in order to hold the Canadian market. My own agents have been telling me for a year past that unless we also took this step we would be in danger of losing our Canadian trade. The fact is, we need Canadian raw materials and they need our manufactured goods, but if we cannot have complete reciprocity, we might at least make a beginning with coal.

Major Henry L. Higginson is probably the best-known banker and philanthropist in New England—the donor of Soldiers' Field to Harvard, and of the Symphony Orchestra to Boston and incidentally to the rest of the country. He is also an incisive thinker on public questions; and this is what he says on the tariff question:

It is surprising and interesting to find how many thorough old-time protectionists think a revision of the tariff essential. Of course there are still men who would increase protection—notably in Maine, where they would add to the present tariff special favors to ship-builders and ship-owners. But even there, as elsewhere in New England, many men, while willing to grant ship subsidies, would offset them by reducing certain items of the present schedules. This year the Massachusetts Republican State platform declared the determination to let well enough alone, *i. e.*, to "stand pat." This declaration was made despite the revision views of several leading Massachusetts Representatives. These latter gentlemen, while believing that protection once had its advantages and helped to build up our industries, were sure that the day must come when these industries were built up and had grown so strong that our products could be exported with profit everywhere. This day has now come, and we no longer need duties on sundry articles, either raw or manufactured. If we are to receive proper consideration from other nations, these nations must receive in turn proper considera-

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tion at our hands. The late Mr. Dingley, not unmindful of this fact, put with his tariff measures a scheme for future reciprocity. As a Republican, and a believer in tariff for revenue only, I welcome this provision and favor the reciprocity treaties now pending. The most important reciprocity treaty, that with Cuba, was vigorously opposed by many Republicans and by the Democrats last year, but it is to be noted that some of them have experienced religion and are now willing to vote not only for Cuban reciprocity, but at least for one item of Canadian reciprocity—viz., coal. Protectionists assert that it is not an easy task to revise the tariff of a great nation, with so many needs and opinions and interests. Of course it is not, but we do not send our representatives to Congress in order to give them an easy task, but to meet the conditions and overcome the difficulties, in the spirit of statesmen who would foresee and avert a coming storm.

One of the most energetic men in the Massachusetts Congressional delegation is Representative Roberts. He said to me that, in the interest of the protective system itself, Republicans ought to bring about needed readjustments in the tariff. "If we don't, the Democrats will. I have approached some of the great party leaders on the subject, and I have actually been met with a rebuff from them. Such men fail to read the 'writing on the wall.'" Mr. Roberts did not think that ultra-protectionists now represent the Republican majority, but that the majority really stands for tariff revision, at least on those schedules which are thought to foster monopoly. "I would like to see a revision of the tariff undertaken at the coming short session, but I have little hope that anything would be accomplished, for, with the Christmas recess of a fortnight, there are really only ten weeks left in the session—not more than time enough in which to consider the appropriation bills, which must be passed in any event. If nothing is done for tariff revision in the coming session, then the President should call an extra session of Congress, to convene as soon as possible after March 5, to take up the tariff in earnest."

There are six political divisions called States in New England. As regards the tariff, however, there seem to be but two New England States; one conservative, the other radical. The first is composed of Maine, northern New Hampshire, Vermont, western Massachusetts, and Connecticut; the second of eastern Massachusetts, southern New Hampshire, and Rhode Island.

But there are other divisions besides this general one. New England citizens are divided, not alone into conservatives and radicals, protectionists and free-traders, but into at least ten classes, thus reflecting a characteristic New England intelligence and independence: (1) In Maine, that stronghold of Republican power, ultra-protectionists are in overwhelming majority. They would not only maintain the present tariff in its entirety, but would also grant subsidies to ship-builders and ship-owners. (2) There are also to be found those who would grant the ship subsidies, but they would equalize conditions by reducing certain present schedules, leaving the total money value of Governmental favors where it is now. (3) Everywhere are found those who would "let well enough alone," but especially in Vermont and Connecticut. (4) Reciprocity, that new-style Republican divergence from old-style protectionism, has made some slight advance in popularity, for most Republicans will now concede Cuban reciprocity, if no other. (5) Many also advocate both Cuban and Canadian reciprocity. (6) A few favor all the reciprocity treaties now pending. (7) As to other revision proposals, New Englanders seem equally divided as to the President's suggestion of a tariff commission, half being in favor of it and the other half regarding it either as evading or delaying the issue. (8) Here and there are found those who would modify the schedules which foster monopoly. (9) More would have the President call a special session of Congress next spring to consider the removal of duty on coal and hides only, as being the items least likely to unsettle business; finally (10)—and especially in that Eastern section which naturally forms one industrial and should have formed one political whole—there are those who favor a general tariff revision. Most of these are Democrats, it is true, but I should say that fully one-third are Republicans. As Mr. Frederick Roy Martin, editor of the Providence "Journal," put it, when I asked him why he called himself an independent Republican, "I am a Republican on everything but the tariff." That expresses the sentiment of thousands. E. F. B.

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Temperance Reform

II.—Constructive Measures. A Platform and a Programme

By Professor W. O. Atwater

Wesleyan University

WE have seen that one difficulty with both prohibition and license is that they do not strike at the main foundations of the saloon, its social features and the private profit. These are eliminated wholly or mainly by the Russian monopoly, the dispensary, and the company systems.

In The Outlook for January 11, 1902, Mr. Kennan has described the workings of the Government spirit monopoly in Russia. The Government has assumed control of the traffic in spirituous liquors (including vodka, but not lighter beverages, as beer and wine), with the twofold purpose of increasing its revenues and reducing the drink evil. One important feature is the attempt to provide social attractions for the poorer people who have sought them in drinking-places. Private persons and organizations have done much to aid this feature of the enterprise. There are serious administrative and other difficulties, however, and it has been partially but not wholly successful.

The dispensary system has been adopted by the State of South Carolina as a whole and in certain districts in Alabama, Georgia, and North Carolina. It is a form of local option by which the State law allows individual communities to confine the retail sale of liquor to dispensaries. These are stores where alcoholic liquors of all ordinary kinds and of assured purity are sold under public authority, in quantities of not less than one-half pint, in bottles (or other sealed packages), not to be opened on the premises; no sale being allowed on credit, or to minors, or between sunset and sunrise, or on Sundays. The system in South Carolina has a twofold aim: to reduce the evils of the liquor traffic by taking it out of private hands, and to retain the whole of the profit for State and municipal purposes. The State Government controls both the wholesale and retail trade, and the system is therefore a State monopoly.

The advantages of the system are said to be the reduction of the number of places where liquor is sold, and the elimination of the private profit, the social and political features, and the gambling and other immoral accessories of the saloon. In the larger cities in South Carolina, especially Charleston, the suppression of the saloon is not complete. The fact that the public derives pecuniary benefit from the sale of liquor is an objection, but the chief disadvantage is said to be that the appointment of agents and other officers is under party control, so that "a machine of great capacity for political purposes has been created, . . . with the Governor of the State as its engineer." In the other States the dispensary system is local, and this last disadvantage is less felt.

On the whole, it seems to me that, save for the two drawbacks which I have mentioned and which might be avoided, the dispensary system is decidedly advantageous in the States where it is in vogue, and is worthy of careful consideration and wider trial. But I should question whether a monopoly of the liquor trade by either the State or a large city, with the appointments of officers and employees, sales, and the whole business in the control of the dominant political party, might not involve serious political evils.

The company system, which originated in Gothenburg, Sweden, and has been adopted in numerous cities in Sweden and in Norway, is essentially this: Under a general system of local option, which allows prohibition where it is wanted, individual communities have also the choice of giving to a company of substantial citizens the monopoly of the sale of spirits. The sale is subject to certain conditions, one of which requires that all profits in excess of a low rate of interest on their

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company's investment shall accrue to the public welfare. The element of private gain is thus eliminated. In Sweden the profits may be used to lower the local tax rate, but in Norway there is a much better regulation by which they are devoted to objects of public utility, including special means for promoting temperance.

The two great defects are said to be the omission of the lighter liquors, beer, wine, and "laddevin," from the monopoly, and, in Sweden, the use of the profits for reducing the local taxes.

Aside from taking the trade out of private hands, the chief advantages are: that the drink traffic is divorced from politics and the way thus made easy for temperance reform which keeps pace with the advancing public sentiment; that the active co-operation of good citizens is secured; that gambling and the immoral accessories of the saloon are abolished; that drinking has strikingly decreased; and that the profits are being used for agencies to counteract the liquor evil. The company system is thus both restrictive and constructive, and, as an alternative with prohibition under local option, seems one of the best thus far devised for the practical and effective promotion of temperance.

Among the most interesting of the later constructive experiments are those in Great Britain and Ireland, including the formation of "Public-House Trust Companies" under the leadership of Earl Grey, and the rapid extension of the People's Refreshment House Association, formed in 1896 by the Bishop of Chester and Major Crawford, and other similar enterprises. The spirit of the companies is similar to that of the Scandinavian company system. They secure control of licensed "public-houses" (saloons), abolish gambling and other immoral accessories, allow no sales on credit, provide that only "pure" liquors shall be sold, and make it to the pecuniary advantage of the manager to discourage the use of alcoholic drinks and to encourage that of temperance beverages in their stead, including tea and mineral waters. All profits above a moderate interest on the investment are devoted to objects of public utility, including counter attractions to the saloon. One of the great advantages is the arousing of active public interest and securing positive aid from men of influence in a practical and effective temperance effort. A very interesting account of the movement may be found in the little volume by Rowntree and Sherwell entitled "British Gothenburg Experiments."[1]

The most encouraging of the constructive efforts to-day, I think, is in substitutes for the saloon, such as "temperance saloons, cheap and clean restaurants, gymnasiums, game-rooms, reading-rooms, libraries, and people's institutes, clubs where intoxicants are not sold, recreation piers and parks, and public baths. These, properly directed and used, may lessen the demand for the liquor saloon."[2]

The article by the Rev. Mr. McNutt entitled "Why Workingmen Drink," in The Outlook for September, 1901, is a telling statement of the need of such establishments. The lately published volume of the Committee of Fifty on "Substitutes for the Saloon" gives an account of an extensive investigation by the Rev. Raymond Calkins, of Pittsfield, Mass., with contributions by a large number of experts from different parts of the United States. These and other publications on the same subject give a vivid picture of the power of the saloon as a social center; its usefulness as well as its corrupting influence; its skill in meeting a social demand which it has discovered, developed, and cultivated to an extent of which the public at large has very little conception; the pressing necessity of substitutes which may meet this demand and utilize it for good purposes instead of evil; and the various enterprises which have been established for the more or less direct attainment of this purpose. The general scope may be inferred from the following list of the principal subjects treated in the volume:

The Saloon as a Social Center. Legislation and Substitution. The Clubs of the People. Clubs for the People. Popular Education. The Church, the Mission, the Settlement, and the Young Men's Christian Association. Indoor Amusements. Outdoor Amusements. Lunch-Rooms and Coffee-Houses. English Temperance Houses. The Housing of the Working People.

This subject is dwelt upon with no less emphasis in both reports of Messrs. Rown-

[1] Hodder & Stoughton, London.

[2] See resolutions of the Men's Assembly of the First M. E. Church, Middletown, Conn., in The Outlook for November 22, page 678.

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tree and Sherwell. They express their "firm conviction" that

> no scheme of temperance reform can be successful which does not include a full recognition of the social and recreative instincts. Any one who has knowledge of city or even village life knows that at bottom the public-house [saloon] problem is largely a question of forgotten needs—the revolt of certain neglected qualities in men which, when allowed favorably to expand, become the instruments of progress.

After all, neither legislation nor regulation nor temperance education nor substitutes for the saloon can do away with the drink evil. These are remedies for the disease, but what is wanted is the constitution to repel it. The power to resist must come with better conditions of living, less of monotonous manual drudgery, less of feverish excitement, with happier homes and more of intellectual and spiritual uplift. The temperance question is only a part of a far larger economic and social question, and the whole is really a question of ethics.

The study of the temperance problem in the light of experience in this and other countries, the use of the results in planning and making new experiments—for the subject is in the experimental stage—and the development of enterprises fitted to different localities and communities: this is a work to which the promoters of social welfare can give their labor and their money in the hope of excellent return.

The conclusions to which the above considerations lead us may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The law for regulation or restriction of the liquor traffic should be adapted to the public sentiment of the community which is to enforce it. We might as well try to fit one coat to all men as one system to all communities. This means local option for most, if not all, States of the Union. The principle might be extended so as to apply, not only to individual counties, towns, and cities, but also to wards and districts of large cities. At present the option is usually between prohibition and license. A third alternative might be added, by proper legislation, so as to allow individual communities to regulate the liquor traffic by the dispensary or company system, or otherwise.

2. The social need now supplied by the saloon should be met in other ways, so that the social and recreative instincts inherent in human nature may be utilized for the uplift rather than the degradation of the individual and of society. This means substitutes for the saloon and other social and educational agencies. Here is a special work, not only for temperance societies, but also for labor organizations, charitable societies, and the church.

3. The traffic should be kept out of politics. One of the great evils of the saloon comes with its political influence, and this is bad, whether it be under license or under unenforced prohibitory law.

4. Where liquor is sold, the profits should be taken out of private hands so far as practicable. This, like the divorce from politics, is sought in the dispensary and company systems. Under both these it is desirable that the profits be used, not to lower local tax rates and thus tempt public instead of private cupidity to encourage the sale of liquor, but rather for purposes of public utility, and especially for saloon substitutes and kindred agencies, so as to make the traffic in a measure self-destroying.

5. A better understanding of the liquor problem is greatly needed. This means recognition of the facts that it is exceedingly complex in itself, that it is only part of a broad economic, social, and ethical question, and that a great amount of inquiry and experimenting will be needed for the solution. Investigation and experiment are slow and costly, but they alone are sure. The information they bring is wanted, not only to show how to combat the liquor evil, but also for the education of public opinion and the instruction of youth so as to promote an increasing sentiment against intemperance.

What shall we do to help matters? First of all, we must recognize that there are two classes of earnest friends of the temperance cause: those who believe in temperance in the sense of moderation, and those who, with equal sincerity and after equally careful thought, believe in abstinence. The two are one in purpose; they should be united in their work. This union, I believe, is the first condition of permanent success.

Many advocates of prohibition are so because they consider it the best practical

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method. But there are those who hold that all use of alcohol as a beverage is sinful, and that high license and the dispensary and company systems are morally wrong and not to be tolerated, and consequently insist upon prohibition as the only righteous method of reform. Their uncompromising attitude has alienated many other people who are equally sincere but cannot accept principles so radical.

No attitude seems to me more reasonable than that of the abstainer who is so because he feels it to be his duty for the sake of example. He obeys the law of service as he understands that law. In this he does right. But need he refuse to join in any effective temperance work?

The thing that makes any use or sale of alcohol wrong is the harm it does. What is wanted is to reduce that harm to a minimum. It is one of the cases in which the moral issue is decided by expediency. Prohibition is an attempt to dam a destructive stream. Prohibition which does not prohibit is a dam which raises the level in one place and makes an injurious back-set without checking the stream. When the stream is too strong for control, the only effective way is to keep it within bounds. The liquor current is too strong to be checked when a large part of the community want it to flow, another part feel that there is no moral right wholly to stop it, and those who want it stopped cannot or will not do the work. What is wanted is levees to keep it within bounds while we try to reduce the flow from the springs. To work for this seems to me morally right and a positive duty.

In opposition to this view, it is sometimes argued that the support of any system which involves the sale of liquor is partnership with evil. Granted; but let us remember that, under a form of government which gives the individual a voice and a vote, every member of society shares and must share the responsibility for the liquor traffic so long as that traffic exists. The duty of the citizen, it seems to me, is neither to hold himself aloof nor to use his influence in favor of ineffective measures, but to take hold and help to reduce the evil in the most practical way.

The president of the Men's Assembly was a prohibitionist of fifty years' standing. After he had given his views in one of the discussions, I requested him to summarize them in writing. Here is what he wrote:

> You ask my platform as a temperance man. In short, it is this: total abstinence from alcohol as a beverage, legal prohibition as the right and proper way to treat so unrighteous and destructive a business as its sale. If, because of the depravity of man, I could not enforce this righteous rule, I would use local option as a restraint to the greatest possible extent. In communities where this is impracticable, I would approve any plan to suppress or restrain the traffic or use of spirituous liquors, in this way hoping to help men to save themselves from its ravages.

I believe the time is ripening, indeed is already ripe, for more successful work for temperance than has yet been accomplished. Men are studying more and more into the causes of evil and the working of the forces that make for righteousness. The scientific spirit which seeks the truth and follows it, and the altruistic spirit which is the spirit of service and of sacrifice, pervade society as never before.

As chemist I find myself dealing constantly with two fundamental principles, the law of the conservation of matter and the law of the conservation of energy. I have come to think that, as moralists, we have likewise to do with two great principles, the law of truth and the law of service. These two ethical laws underlie all our morals and all our real religion. They find their clearest statement in the Sermon on the Mount, of which they are the basis, and their best expression in Christianity, whose highest function is their application; and every great philanthropic and moral movement is permanently successful in proportion as it obeys them. The strength of the temperance movement thus far, it seems to me, rests in what has always been its obedience to the law of service. Its weakness is its failure to follow to the final and logical conclusions the law of truth. The hope of the movement to-day rests in the growing readiness of our time to follow both.

In obedience to the laws of truth and service men are interesting themselves to-day, as never before, in the great political, economic, social, and ethical questions. Among these they are coming to believe that the temperance question is one of the most important. They are coming to

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realize the injury done by strong drink, the need of temperance, and their duty to aid in its promotion. It seems to me that the time has come for developing this movement in such amount and power as to make it far more potent than anything previously known. Among other things needed to bring this about, three are especially important.

One of these needs is a better public understanding of the nature and extent of the drink evil. Many people know very little of the subject and are not interested in it, and many who earnestly desire reform have very incorrect ideas as to the physiological, economic, ethical, educational, and legislative bearings of the problem. The unfortunate method of using alcohol physiology as an instrument for promoting temperance has done much to spread such incorrect ideas. A doctrine which, in wholly truthful form, is most effective, has long been taught with a large admixture of error, and has been brought with this admixture into the public schools by the aid of the law, and into the Sunday-school and the pulpit with the sanction of the church, so that the basing of the argument against alcohol upon grounds which are untenable has become very general. Add to those who have received such instruction the number who have had none, and the mistaught and the untaught together make a large share of the population.

Another need is that of more rational methods of temperance effort. Exaggeration born of enthusiasm may have had its proper place, but the time has come for more of judicious moderation.

The third need is more general and influential support. The great body of earnest, public-spirited people, those whose influence ultimately decides the attitude of the community on our great social and ethical questions, and on whom the real success of the temperance movement depends, are not actively engaged in it. This is not because they do not sympathize with it; they think much, but say little and do less. One difficulty is that the way is not quite clear to them. They are conservative with their labor as with their money, and do not like to invest either in enterprises of doubtful utility. Many are ready to help where the cause appeals to their conscience and the method agrees with their judgment. I believe they can be led to give their influence in favor of the temperance cause far m re generally than they have done, and that this influence can become a force which, accumulating gradually and working surely, will prove irresistible.

"What is now wanted is the wider outlook, the leadership quick to discern the full strength of the forces which may be marshaled on the side of temperance, and the practical sagacity to bring about a working union."

A practical effort on the lines thus laid down will naturally meet the opposition of the liquor interest, the apathy of the great body of the indifferent, and the criticism, if not the positive opposition, of some of the more radical though most conscientious temperance people. Its strength and its hope are in the conservative, thoughtful, and earnest classes of which I have spoken.

The present needs, I think, are a platform on which the friends of temperance can stand together, a programme for their work, and an organization to make it effective.

Organization is essential. This means leadership, labor, and money. It means the labor and the money of both the many who can give little and the few who can give much. Especially, it needs the leadership of men with the brains and the organizing power which give success to the great commercial and industrial enterprises of our time.

Our time offers a new career in the higher citizenship. Once the field for the larger public service was almost wholly confined to politics. To-day the philanthropist, as the organizer of the forces which make for public and private righteousness, has as definite work to do, can render as useful service to the Republic, and may hope for as much of the esteem and thankfulness of his fellow-citizens as can be found in the legislative, judicial, or executive service of the State or the Nation. One of his places is here.

The platform might call for such things as: (1) Recognition of the complexity of the liquor problem, and the inadequacy of past effort to solve it. (2) Doing away with the private profits and social features of the saloon. (3) Establishment of social substitutes for the saloon. (4) Extension

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of the principle of local option so as not only to allow the choice between prohibition and license, but also to permit local communities to adopt the dispensary or company system, or other plans for regulating the liquor traffic. (5) Study of the subject and education of public opinion. (6) Union of the friends of temperance for aggressive work.

The programme for actual work might include:

1. Study of the various phases of the liquor problem in different parts of the United States and in other countries, and publication of the results.

2. The securing of State legislation to permit local experiments with systems of public and company control of the liquor traffic; and the instituting of such experiments.

3. The establishment of substitutes for the saloon in different places and fitted to local conditions.

The proposed organization might conduct inquiries; publish the results; advise individuals, communities, and legislators with regard to the best forms of legislation and methods of work in different localities; and assist in planning and conducting experiments with saloon substitutes and with agencies and systems for the control of the liquor traffic.

These tentative suggestions make no claim to either originality or special wisdom. If they stimulate thoughtful discussion, their main purpose will be served. The Committee of Fifty have led in the research, and their publications point the way to a larger work. May it not be that now is the "psychological moment" for entering upon that larger effort toward rational temperance reform?

Professor Adolf Lorenz[1]

By Dexter D. Ashley, M.D.

IN the coming of Professor Adolf Lorenz from Vienna to Chicago we have a noteworthy event in medical history. No one has traveled so far to operate upon a patient, and seldom, if ever, has so large a fee been paid by a private citizen for a single operation.

Dr. Lorenz, as Professor of Orthopedic Surgery in the University of Vienna, has been a prominent factor in the advancement of the science of medicine which has distinguished recent years. To many sick and lame his coming has justly given new hope. On the other hand, extravagant ideas of his skill have been entertained by many, who have almost surrounded him with a halo, or accredited him with miraculous power. We had to protect him from supplicants who came with every conceivable illness, from cancer to shattered nerves. At Cook County Hospital, Chicago, was gathered a crowd variously estimated at from three and a half to five thousand. Mothers wept and fought to see him for their children, until a wagon-load of police had to be called out to control the crowd.

The phrase "bloodless operation" has excited the people, until they imagine that all his operations are bloodless, and clothe his ways in mystery. Yet our subject is not a Healer, a Christian Scientist, or even, as I have heard, an Osteopathist. He is simply a regular, scientific surgeon, claiming no knowledge that he does not impart, and no skill which cannot be acquired by an educated man, through experience and application to a particular specialty.

Professor Lorenz is a man of charming personality, a fluent and animated speaker in several languages, temperate in habit, nervous in disposition, yet cool, clear, and resourceful in emergency.

This typical Viking, six feet two inches tall, erect, lean, and muscular, with his long, blond beard and well-kept hair touched with gray, is a striking figure in any assembly. The face, not a regular German type, is still that of a young and vigorous man, most expressive when, at

[1] The author of this article, Dr. Dexter D. Ashley, a graduate of the Missouri Medical College and Bellevue Hospital and Medical College, is devoting himself exclusively to orthopedic surgery. He is connected with the New York Ruptured and Crippled and New York Post-Graduate Hospitals. Having studied in various schools in America, he continued his studies abroad, visiting Liverpool, London, Hamburg, Berlin, Vienna, Heidelberg, Munich, and Paris. In Vienna he became a fast friend of Professor Lorenz, following up his public and private practice. He accompanied Dr. Lorenz to America, where he has been assisting Professor Lorenz in his operations.—THE EDITORS.

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his quiet Viennese home, he conducts you over his comfortable grounds, talking of science, art, and the various phases of his medical career. The strong, sensitive mouth and shapely nose bespeak a man of refined tastes and thoughts. His large, expressive gray eyes reveal every mood, yet are so kind that I have never seen a child who could resist his overtures of friendship.

He is loved and respected by every one of his patients and assistants. A great operator is not always so kind and thoughtful of the feelings of others. I never heard an assistant receive a rebuff while associated with him in Vienna. He is most genial and informal, meeting subordinates on terms of perfect equality, listening to their various plans and giving latitude for investigation. I shall long remember the hearty handshake he gave me, and the little play as to whether my German or his English was the better, when I first met him, in January of 1902, after his return from a recuperating vacation in northern Africa, and shall never forget the advantages extended to an orthopedic pilgrim.

With all his kindness and courtesy, he is yet tenacious and aggressive when convinced of his position, speaking in his native German with tact, eloquence, and force that carry conviction to hearers. More than once all his strength has been tested in the medical congresses of Europe.

Dr. Lorenz was born in a small town of northern Austria, forty-eight years ago. His father was a watchmaker.

In 1875 he entered the University of Vienna, which has long been the Mecca of the ambitious sons of Austria, and by diligence succeeded in winning an endowed scholarship. By this means, and the small sums earned by tutoring in good families, he eked out the student's life. I am told that frequently bare necessities were luxuries. His clothes were shabby. The old clerk who paid the endowments avers that Lorenz always stood first in line to receive his allowance.

He graduated in medicine in 1880, and obtained the position of clinical assistant to Professor Albert, who then occupied a chair of surgery at the University. In time they became fast friends. Lorenz intended to become a general surgeon. This was in the early days of antiseptic surgery, introduced by the great English surgeon Lister. All sterilization and cleansing of instruments and hands was done by strong carbolic acid and bichloride solution. He soon experienced a severe poisoning of his hands from the use of these drugs, and found that he had an idiosyncrasy for their poisonous effects. He was in despair, feeling that all his preparation for surgery had been wasted. His friend Professor Albert advised him to take up the specialty of orthopedic surgery,[1] which was comparatively new and unworked in Vienna at that time, and the practice of which then required little cutting. In fact, it was mostly bracing and exercise.

With many forebodings, and feeling that his future had been lost to him by this accidental idiosyncrasy, he commenced to apply himself to orthopedic surgery, continuing to work with Professor Albert.

Still he was poor—very poor—when he met the lady who was to become his wife, in a good family of Vienna. Believing in themselves, they were married in 1884. Mrs. Lorenz, "die Frau Professor," as she is called by patients, a handsome woman of strong and vigorous character, has proved a rare helpmate. While supervising two homes, one in town and another in the country, she finds time to superintend much of the after-treatment of patients, in massage and gymnastics, sees that the Professor takes his meals, reminds him of his appointments, sends him off on vacations when he is overworked, besides looking after much of his correspondence, for Professor Lorenz, like many German doctors, has not yet adopted the labor-saving stenographer. That voluminous book of four hundred pages, describing the congenital hip and its treatment, was all dictated to Mrs. Lorenz on the train while going to and from his suburban home.

Some twelve years ago Professor Hoffa, an orthopedic surgeon, then of Würzburg, now of Berlin, carried out the idea of treating congenital dislocation of the hip by means of cutting the shortened muscles, gouging out deeper the deformed

[1] The word orthopedia is from two Greek words, *orthos*, straight, and *pais*, a child. It is generally applied to that branch of surgery which includes the treatment of deformities, acquired or congenital, and the prevention of deformities complicating disease or accident.

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socket, and placing the head of the thigh-bone in its proper relation to the body.

Professor Lorenz, after performing one or two operations after this method, found it so sanguinary that he decided never to do another. He developed the idea of stretching and parting the muscles, reducing the dislocated head into the old socket by much less cutting than in the Hoffa operation. After encountering much opposition, his modification was generally accepted throughout Europe, and was called the Hoffa-Lorenz operation.

About 1892, after performing some two hundred of these "open operations," Lorenz conceived the idea of reducing the congenitally dislocated hip by means of manipulation. A child three years old, suffering from this deformity, was given an anæsthetic. After some moments of manipulation, the head of the bone was placed in the socket with a distinct click and shock, both felt and heard by the operator and his assistants.

Paci, of Italy, attempted a reduction in an adult; his manipulations were quite different, and the position in which he fixed the limb was altogether different. It was for some time a much-mooted point as to which had originated the idea of the bloodless reduction; but this has been amicably settled between the professors. Lorenz says that research reveals that a surgeon of Boston conceived the idea years ago, his endeavor to reduce failing, it may be, because of not using an anæsthetic.

In 1895 Professor Lorenz demonstrated his bloodless reduction to the Medical Congress at Berlin. Since 1900 the bloodless operation has been accepted by European surgeons almost to a man. Professor Hoffa still uses the open method on older patients, or when difficulty is experienced in reduction by the bloodless method.

Professor Lorenz says, with something of reserve—more in his voice than his words—that he does not expect ever to find it necessary or advisable to perform the open operation.

He tells me that for several years he accepted no fees for his bloodless operations, telling his patients that it was yet an experiment. If he succeeded in curing them, he expected them to pay well, but should it prove a failure, he wanted nothing. He has demonstrated his operation in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Constantinople, Cairo, Alexandria, Stockholm, in fact in nearly every large city of Europe except in England.

Professor Lorenz might be said to be a specialist in this one operation, having operated more than one thousand times, and derived more recompense for his labor than from all his other practice.

This is not his only bloodless operation. He has originated operations to straighten club-feet, and limbs contracted by paralysis and inflammation, besides inventing several instruments very useful to the orthopedic surgeon.

He is a voluminous writer, having covered well the subject of his specialty. His German style is admitted to be classical in its simplicity, clearness, and force. He speaks German, French, Italian, English. He is an ardent lover of good pictures and statuary, and has a small fortune in rare paintings. In Vienna, in the private sanatarium, after the strain of operations was over, pictures and art topics were subjects of animated conversation. He loves nature also, and delights in long walks through the forests around Vienna. He is also fond of horseback-riding and tennis.

He looks forward to the time when he may retire to his comfortable country home, leaving the hard work of the profession to the younger men. He has no desire to accumulate an immense fortune, but only a sufficient amount to provide him with a competent income in his retirement. He believes that a man should combine business and recreation. He thinks that he has worked too hard himself, and believes that the American professional and business man does not get what he should out of life.

I was surprised and disappointed to find that orthopedic surgery, with the exception of congenital hip dislocation and club-feet, had always been distasteful drudgery to him. In fact, he has always felt that he should have been a general surgeon.

He lives eight months in the year on the southern bank of the blue Danube, in the little village of Altenberg-Greifenstein, twelve miles west of Vienna, residing in the city during the cold months of winter.

Every morning he rises at 6:30, breakfasts, and catches the train for the city,

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accompanied by Mrs. Lorenz. Reaching the city at 8, he drives rapidly to the sanitarium, where private operations are performed. Finishing there, he is driven to the clinic at the University, remaining from 9:30 to 11, and then goes to his city home and office to see private patients until 1, when luncheon is served. From 3 to 5:30, during three days in the week, he attends to the after-treatment and class in gymnastics, returning to his suburban residence at six o'clock.

The influence of Professor Lorenz's visit to this country will be beneficial to both the public and the profession. The orthopedic surgeon will have a better understanding of this bloodless operation and the technique of bandaging and after-treatment necessary to successful management of these cases. The general practitioner will make an earlier diagnosis of these conditions, which can be cured by the bloodless operation only in infancy and early youth. Many came to us in Chicago who were beyond the age-limit. Professor Lorenz remarked that should he come to America in ten years he hoped not to find these neglected cases.

The laity will be educated to realize the importance of this early treatment, and be directed to the men practicing this specialty of orthopedic surgery, who only can be expected to conduct these cases to a successful cure.

Another condition must be faced and understood by the public and profession. Many will be disappointed, since Professor Lorenz, with his great experience and skill, cannot warrant all cases. Fifty per cent. of all cases in his practice have been cured, while the other fifty per cent. have been only ameliorated.

Still, the operation will be eagerly attempted by over-confident, inefficient men, who have only seen the work from the arena, who comprehend nothing of the minutia of the complete reduction, the deepening of the socket, and the elimination of the forces tending to relaxation; who know nothing of the position of stability in the different deformities, the holding of the limb in this position by the application of plaster of Paris, yet permitting the joint to functionate, giving Nature an opportunity to adjust the tissues and insure the stability of the new condition; who never saw the sometimes so necessary and long after-treatment, considered of no secondary importance by the Professor, requiring experience and knowledge of the anatomical relations that cannot be learned from books.

And yet another phase. The laity may become the credulous prey of various advertising institutions, self-styled specialists, imitators, and wonder-workers, such as one I read of in Chicago, who claimed that he had reduced a congenital dislocation in an adult, without anæsthetics, by massage and traction.

The Cry or the Age

By Hamlin Garland

What shall I do to be just?
  What shall I do for the gain
Of the world—for its sadness?
Teach me, O Seers that I trust!
  Chart me the difficult main
Leading out of my sorrow and madness
  Preach me the purging of pain.

Shall I wrench from my finger the ring
  To cast to the tramp at my door?
Shall I tear off each luminous thing
  To drop in the palm of the poor?
What shall I do to be just?
  Teach me, O Ye in the light,
Whom the poor and the rich alike trust:
  My heart is aflame to be right.

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The Far Eastern Tropics

Studies in Colonial Administration

By Alleyne Ireland, F.R.G.S.

Author of "Tropical Colonization," etc.; Colonial Commissioner of the University of Chicago

II.—Hongkong

WITH the exception of Bermuda and Gibraltar, the Island of Hongkong is the smallest colony in the British Empire, but in more than one respect it is the most interesting. Its area is less than thirty square miles;[1] its population is equal to that of Washington (300,000); yet in the year 1900 Hongkong stood at the head of all ports of the world in the magnitude of its shipping. In tonnage entered and cleared in 1900 Hongkong surpassed Liverpool by five million tons, Hamburg by one million, London and New York by about half a million tons each. The exact figures were:

TOTAL TONNAGE OF SHIPPING ENTERED AND CLEARED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE IN 1900

Hongkong	17,247,023 tons.
New York	16,797,700 "
London	16,700,527 "
Hamburg	16,087,673 "
Liverpool	11,677,708 "

These figures appear the more remarkable if we consider the history of Hongkong. The island was ceded to England by China in 1842 by the Treaty of Nanking. At that time the population of the colony was about 5,000, made up of pirates, fishermen, farmers, and granite-workers, living in huts made of baked-mud bricks, and holding no intercourse with the outside world beyond Canton, which lies ninety miles to the north.

This was sixty years ago, and to-day Hongkong has a population of 300,000 souls, a fine city for its capital, splendid roads, schools, churches, banks, hospitals, clubs, hotels, newspapers, electric light, cable cars—in short, almost everything which we are accustomed to associate with the idea of an advanced civilization—while it is connected with the outside world by cable and by the most extensive system of steamship lines which converge at any single port in the world.

The transformation of Hongkong forms one of the most striking chapters in the history of the white man's work in the tropics. It has not been accomplished without the commission of many grave errors of policy, due for the most part to the persistent refusal of the British Government to be guided by the views of the man on the spot; nor can it be said that even to-day the interests of the colony are free from danger from the same cause; but the record, on the whole, has been one of brilliant success, and the administration of Hongkong, though by no means free from faults, is a valuable object-lesson in the management of a Chinese community on Western lines.

Pursuing the method of inquiry which was indicated in the first article of this series (see The Outlook for November 22), our first task is to consider the fixed conditions which prevail in Hongkong from the nature of the climate, the people, and the land.

The composition of the population of Hongkong has been determined by two causes—the climate and the situation of the island. The first of these, acting as a general factor, made it inevitable that the mass of the population should be of a colored race, for in no part of the tropics can manual labor be performed by white men, and it has always been found that, in places where the laboring classes are composed of colored men, only the very highest occupations will be taken up by white men. A natural limit is thus set to the proportion of white men which can be supported by any community in the tropics. The second cause, acting as a specific factor, assigned to Hongkong a Chinese population; for if the climate predetermined a colored race, the situa-

[1] In this article the New Territory, a tract of land recently leased from China and placed under the government of Hongkong, is not included.

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tion of the island on the threshold of China decided which race it was to be.

The census returns of 1901 disclose the precise effects of these causes:

CIVIL POPULATION OF HONGKONG IN 1901

Europeans and Americans,	6,454,	equal to	2.27 per cent.
Chinese	274,543	"	96.68 "
Others	2,978	"	1.05 "

It is clear that for a colony with such a population any form of government which involves a general representation of the taxpayers is impossible, for less than two per cent. of the taxpayers are British subjects, and more than ninety-five per cent. are Chinese.

In the long experience of England in governing colonies, a form of government has been evolved to meet the case of a colony in which the population is made up of a handful of temporary residents belonging to the ruling race and an overwhelming number of natives. This is known as Crown Colony government. Its essential feature is the entire absence of any popular element in the administration, and the direct control exercised by the Colonial Office in London over all acts of the local authorities; the theory on which it is based is this, that, whereas a representative government in Hongkong which rested on a general franchise would place the British residents under the heel of the Chinese, a franchise which extended only to white British subjects would put the mass of the population and the great majority of the taxpayers at the mercy of a handful of merchants, and that under such circumstances the best way to secure honest and efficient administration is to place the control of affairs in the hands of a distant body of trained officials.

The Government of Hongkong consists of the Governor, the Executive Council, and the Legislative Council. The Governor is appointed by the Crown, and holds his office for five years. The Executive Council consists of six official and two unofficial members, presided over by the Governor. Of the six official members five hold their seats *ex officio*—namely, the gentlemen holding the offices of Senior Military Officer, Attorney-General, Colonial Secretary, Director of Public Works, and Colonial Treasurer. The sixth official member is the Harbormaster, who holds his seat by appointment. The two unofficial members are appointed by the Crown, through the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The meetings of the Executive Council are not open to the public; but minutes are kept, one copy of which is filed in the colony, and one in the Colonial Office in London. The work of the Executive Council covers a very wide range of subjects. The ordinary business may be divided into seven classes: 1. Any matter in which the Governor requires special advice—as, for instance, when the heads of two departments of the Government differ in regard to some proposed measure which affects both departments. 2. The granting of leave of absence on half-pay to officials. 3. The dismissal of public servants. 4. The discussion of such legislative measures as it is proposed to lay before the Legislative Council. 5. The consideration of cases in which a capital sentence has been pronounced on a criminal by the Supreme Court. 6. The reading of such confidential despatches from the Secretary of State for the Colonies as the Governor may deem proper to lay before the Council. 7. The making of regulations by the Governor-in-Council, as provided by law, on such subjects as quarantine, opium licenses, sanitary by-laws, and so on.

The Legislative Council of Hongkong consists of seven official and six unofficial members, presided over by the Governor, who has an original and a casting vote. Of the official members five are those who have seats in the Executive Council, and the other two are appointed. Of the unofficial members one is nominated by the Hongkong Chamber of Commerce, and one by the Justices of the Peace of the colony; the remaining four are appointed by the Crown, and of these one at least must be a Chinaman. Members of the Legislative Council hold their seats for six years, and are eligible for reappointment.

The most important duty of the Legislative Council is to pass the laws of the colony. Any member may introduce a bill; but any bill, vote, or resolution, the object or effect of which may be to dispose of or charge any part of the revenue of the colony, can be proposed only by the Governor or with his express consent. The annual estimates are discussed by the Legislative Council, and without its

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consent no money can be appropriated from the revenue of the colony. The meetings are open to the public, and a local "Hansard" preserves a verbatim account of the proceedings. The procedure of the Legislative Council of Hongkong is, in the main, that of the British House of Commons.

Those conditions which render impossible the existence of a representative government in Hongkong forbid also the introduction of municipal government in Victoria, the capital of the colony; and there is thus no *imperium in imperio* in the colony: everything—police, water-supply, lighting, sanitation—is administered by the Colonial Government.

It was proposed some years ago to establish a municipality in Hongkong, and it is amusing to find in the Sessional Papers of the colony a letter from a member of the Legislative Council opposing the change on the ground that "the evils that would spring from such a concession would destroy all confidence in the administration of affairs, and introduce the colony to the municipal experiences of New York and San Francisco."

We have seen what the system of government is in Hongkong, and we may now turn to the men who administer it.

The civil service of Hongkong is what is known as a Cadet Service—that is, a service in which all the high administrative appointments are reserved for men who have passed the examinations prescribed for Eastern cadets.

An examination is held each year in London (open to all British subjects, white or colored) for posts in the Home Civil Service, the Indian Civil Service, and the Eastern Cadet Service—that is, the civil services of Ceylon, Hongkong, the Straits Settlements, and the Federated Malay States. There is only one examination, and successful candidates are allowed to choose, in their pass order, the service they wish to enter, until the vacancies are exhausted.

Of the severity of these examinations Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell, in his "Colonial Civil Service," says: "The examination papers are such as might be set, in an American university, for graduation honors or for a Ph.D. But it must be remembered that they are prepared by men who have nothing to do with the instruction of the candidates, and hence are really more difficult than similar papers, set by a professor to his own students, would be in America."

The men who, after passing the examination, select the Hongkong service, are at once placed on the pay-roll of the colony at a salary of $1,500 silver (equal to about $750 gold), and are then sent to Canton for two years to study Chinese. During this time they must pass four examinations in Chinese, and failure in these is followed by dismissal from the service. Practically all posts in the public service of the colony, except those in the technical services, are open to cadets, and it is understood that, as a rule, no one but a cadet can rise to the highest posts.

The salaries of the Colonial officials of Hongkong are high as measured by the standard of official salaries in the United States; but they are by no means too high if the paramount importance of securing the best men for the colonial service is considered. The salaries of the principal officials are as follows, in silver dollars equal to about fifty cents gold each: the Governor, $35,000; the Chief Justice, $13,500; the Colonial Secretary, $10,800; the Attorney-General and the Puisne Judges, $8,400 each; the Director of Public Works, $7,800; the Harbor Master, the First Police Magistrate, and the Captain-Superintendent of Police, $6,000 each.

It is instructive to note that a number of the government officials of Hongkong are men of academic distinction. The Colonial Secretary is a first-honor man and prize-man in classics and modern languages of Trinity College, Dublin; the Assistant Colonial Secretary is a prize-man of Edinburgh University, a first-honor man in English literature, modern history, and constitutional law, and an exhibitioner of Magdalen College, Oxford; and the service includes a Bacon Scholar of Gray's Inn and a Boden Sanscrit Scholar.

As Hongkong is a free port, and as the trade is almost entirely a transit trade, no record is kept of the nature and value of the cargoes which enter and leave the harbor. The only guide, therefore, to the financial condition of the island is the annual return of revenue and expenditure. The public revenue of Hongkong in 1901 was $3,973,578 (equal to about $1,800,000

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gold)—that is, $6 gold per head of the population. More than four-fifths of the revenue comes under eight heads: assessed taxes (equivalent to our municipal rates), $708,000; opium monopoly, $687,000; spirit licenses, $126,000; revenue stamps, $442,000; postage stamps, $356,000; rent of government land and buildings, $555,000; profit on the issue of coinage, $184,000; and water revenue, $169,000.

The accounts of the expenditure of the colony show that out of a total expenditure of $4,000,000 only one million dollars went as personal emoluments. Of the remaining $3,000,000 more than three-fifths fell under the heads: Public works (roads, bridges, buildings), $700,000; military contribution (a sum paid to England for the defense of the colony and in consideration of the assignment to the colony as residents of nearly five thousand troops), $851,000; miscellaneous services (chiefly incurred through measures of sanitation and the prevention of plague), $469,000; police, $400,000; pensions and retiring allowances, $178,000; and charges on account of the public debt, $162,000.

The task of administering the affairs of Hongkong is a peculiar and difficult one. It must be remembered that very nearly ninety-seven per cent. of the population is Chinese, and that from the extraordinary difficulty of learning the Chinese language the intercourse between the mass of the people and those who are administering their affairs is limited almost entirely to brief official interviews. Fortunately, the Chinaman is, under ordinary circumstances, a law-abiding citizen with a wholesome respect for established authority. But the population of Hongkong is not normal in its composition, for it contains an undue proportion of criminals. This is due to its proximity to Canton, and to the extreme mildness of the English criminal law as compared with that of China. As an example of this we may take the punishment which would follow a third or fourth conviction of petty theft in Hongkong and in China respectively. On the mainland an end would be put to the offender's career either by rubbing quicklime into his eyes or by crushing his ankle-bones so as to lame him for life; in Hongkong he would get a few months' hard labor in jail. The result is that Hongkong has become a happy hunting-ground for hundreds of criminals from the adjoining province of Kwangtung, and that the police force of the colony costs about $400,000 a year, or one-tenth of the total expenditure.

But although the Chinaman is not, generally speaking, given to crime, he possesses certain characteristics which, from the standpoint of the colonial administrator, are even more difficult to deal with. Foremost among these is his absolute indifference to sanitary conditions of life. We are familiar with the idea of domestic animals living in some little hovel in the poorest district of Ireland, and the picture is unpleasant even when we remember that during the day such animals will be out-of-doors. A Chinaman, unless he is closely watched, will keep pigs in the fourth story of a house in which perhaps a dozen families live beneath him; and on that fourth story, with its open-work floors, the pig will live and move and have his being until he changes his Saxon name for his French one.

Another thing which makes the Chinaman very difficult to deal with is the complete organization of all classes into guilds and secret societies, backed by the solid influence of the clan and family ties. This social cohesion makes it almost impossible to protect individual interests or those of the colony when these run counter to some habit or tradition of the Chinese. For instance, one of my Chinese servants commits an offense and I dismiss him. One of two things will happen; either I will engage in his place, unwittingly, another member of his family, a son, brother, uncle, or cousin, or, if by some rare chance I detect the relationship and refuse to engage the new applicant, I find it impossible to get a man in his place, for the union or guild to which the dismissed servant belongs will boycott me. It is the same in matters which affect the community at large. A man is fined by a magistrate for committing some offense against the sanitary laws; the fine is paid by the guild, and the ends of justice are defeated.

The utter disregard of truth which is a marked trait of the Chinese character, the entire absence of any sense of shame when detected in a lie or in a crime, the mutual distrust which pervades all classes,

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the disregard of promises, the concentration of the minds of the people on the single idea of economy (which results, to give an instance, in a perfect readiness to eat diseased meat if it is sold a fraction cheaper than good meat), the incapacity of the Chinaman to feel ordinary physical pain (a peculiarity which has been mistaken by some observers for a remarkable fortitude in bearing it), the complete indifference to the misfortunes of others—these things make the administration of a Chinese community difficult in the extreme.

To give just three instances of occurrences in which some of the above traits appear. Some years ago there was a terrible typhoon in Hongkong. Many hours before its arrival the observatory officials issued a warning to all ships and junks. A police boat was sent to Mirs Bay, where a great many fishing-nets are placed under charge of men who live in small huts perched on the top of a couple of poles right out in deep water. All these men were warned by Chinese policemen of the approaching danger and were advised to leave their huts and go on shore, the launch offering to take them free of charge. Not one of the men followed this advice; the typhoon came, and every one of them was drowned. It was afterwards explained by their friends on shore that the reason why the men had refused to leave their nets was that they could not conceive of the possibility of the government offering to take the men on shore free of charge unless a sinister motive lay behind the act.

During the same typhoon a number of junks were wrecked in Hongkong harbor, and no effort of any kind was made by the Chinese to help one another. Drowning people floated past safely anchored junks, but although numbers could have been saved merely by the casting of a rope, those on the junks sat still and calmly watched their fellow men and women drown. The English were in the meanwhile busy at rescue work. One junk was seen to be sinking, and a number of young men, at the greatest personal peril, made a living cordon over some wreckage and called out to the single Chinaman on board that if he was quick they might save him. As soon as the man had assured himself that the men really intended to save him, he disappeared for a moment and returned with a heavy trunk which he said they might pass on shore for him first.

There is a great deal of fishing around Hongkong, and one fishing junk set out with a crew of four or five men to catch fish by means of exploding dynamite under the water. One of the men, in getting a cartridge ready, set it off by mistake and blew off both his hands at the wrists. His companions sailed over to a small rock near by, set the man ashore, and left him to die or recover, as might be his luck. The man died; the case came under inquiry, and the Chinamen indignantly defended their action on the ground that if he had only blown off one hand they would have kept him on board, but that as he had lost both his hands and could thus be of no use at all, they had done the only thing possible in setting him on shore to die.

The discouraging part of all this is that, as far as one can judge, three hundred and fifty years of contact with the white man has made no appreciable change in the Chinaman.

In talking over the matter with one or two highly educated and widely traveled Chinese gentlemen in Hongkong, I was told that, with the exception of a mere handful of men in Hongkong and the Treaty Ports, contact with Western civilization had absolutely failed to change a single trait in the Chinese character; that we are as much hated and despised as ever we were by the mass of the people; that as far as the present is concerned, the existence of powerful armed forces alone insures the lives of the foreigners; and that, for the future, the probabilities pointed to the total exclusion of the foreigners from China. This they all deplored; but it was their sincere conviction.

The more we bear these facts in mind the greater must be our admiration for England's work in Hongkong. She has turned a nest of pirates into a flourishing city; she has thrown it open to the world; she has made life and property as secure there, where there are scarcely two white men in a hundred, as they are in London; and she has done all this almost within sight of Canton, where to-day, as fifty years ago, when a foreigner passes in the streets the people cry, "Ah, foreign devil! foreign devil!"

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The Separate Street-Car Law in New Orleans

By A. R. Holcombe

ON November 3 the "Jim Crow," or separate street-car, law went into effect in New Orleans. This law was passed at the last session of the Louisiana Legislature. By its terms the street railway companies are compelled to use separate cars for the carrying of white and colored passengers, or to fit the cars with wire screens or wooden partitions.

When the bill was introduced by Mr. Wilson, of Tangipahoa Parish—a parish, by the way, that hasn't a street-car in it—there followed a perfect hail-storm of editorials and letters to the press, some condemning or approving such a law *in toto*, others discussing certain phases of or deductions from the law and its operation. One of the most surprising things about the discussion was the fact that popular opinion, so far as both races were concerned, was about equally divided on the matter. So strong, indeed, was the opposition that at one time the bill came near not passing, and had it not been for the fact that in Louisiana the negro is practically without political influence, it is almost certain that it would not have passed. In support of the measure there was, however, a strong following. It is neither unjust nor inaccurate to say that this following was made up principally of those who dislike the negro because he is the negro. This fact is indicated in the chief argument advanced by those supporting the measure, *i.e.*, that refined women and men were forced to sit by and rub elbows with negroes.

Those who opposed the passage of the bill were led by one of the oldest, most conservative and representative daily newspapers in the South. They declared that such a law was neither necessary nor expedient. It is a well-known fact that negroes getting on street-cars choose to sit by negroes rather than by white people, and particularly is this so in the case of the badly dressed or otherwise objectionable kind. There are, to be sure, negroes who, pushing themselves forward, choose to sit by the best, the cleanest, and the most refined people in the car, but these negroes, as a rule, are themselves clean, well dressed, and, in some cases, refined. On the whole, therefore, it was thought to be very unusual that a negro would prefer to sit by a white person, and more so that a white person would be compelled to sit by a negro who, on account of his dress or uncleanliness, was obnoxious. Under the circumstances, the passage of the law was thought to be clearly unnecessary. And, being unnecessary, it was inexpedient, since, without subserving any good purpose, it would certainly provoke ill feeling and possibly friction between the races, as used to happen when the famous "star cars" of the fifties and sixties were operated.

To understand the different opinions expressed regarding the law by several groups of negroes in New Orleans, it is necessary to say a word about the negroes themselves. One group, that which is conducting the educational campaign recently described in The Outlook, favored the passage of the bill, but took no active part in the discussions. With a view to bringing about a friendlier feeling between the races, it is probable that these negroes would have advocated openly the separate car system had not a large number of their own race been strongly opposed to the measure. It was fear of alienating these, and of destroying the growing influence for good already existing, that this group of negroes kept silent. With hardly an exception, they kept away from the meetings and refused to discuss the question except privately or by anonymous communications to the press.

Another group of intelligent negroes, the class that take the leading part in the various non-religious organizations, openly opposed the bill, and took steps, after it was passed, to prevent the law affecting the negro population. An association of women attached to the Masonic Order proposed to run 'bus lines to accommodate

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negro passengers, and issued a call to the fifty or more negro organizations in New Orleans to send representatives to a meeting at which the question would be considered. Unfeasible as the scheme was, it nevertheless appealed strongly to the negroes, and at the meetings representatives from nearly all the organizations were present.

It was apparent from the discussions that the "ruling passion" back of it all was a sense of deep humiliation that negroes as a race should be considered unworthy to ride in conveyances with white people. The railway companies had announced their intention of putting wire screens in every car, and to have negroes occupy the rear seats. This idea of sitting behind screens, as if they were wild or obnoxious animals, was another fact contributing to their mortification. Many of them, it was said, took pride in keeping clean, in wearing good clothes, and in behaving well, as much because they could feel at ease in decent company as because it gave them other personal satisfaction. To exclude such negroes from compartments occupied by white people would, they said, be as unjust as it would be to force them to sit in compartments with unworthy representatives of their own race, whom they, as much as the white people, despised. It would be equally unjust to admit obnoxious white people to white compartments and exclude respectable negroes from enjoying the same privilege.

Probably the next most pronounced sentiment of the meetings was a demand for negroes to support one another in business enterprises. To the negroes, the strongest argument in favor of a 'bus line was the fact that it would be a negro enterprise supported by negro capital and conducted for the general benefit of the race in New Orleans. Out of this assertion grew many an urgent appeal for negroes to acquire property and contribute to the general welfare of other negroes by patronizing them in their businesses. This sentiment is growing stronger and stronger every day, and the results of it are more and more apparent. Negroes no longer wish to send their children to white teachers; negro patients demand the services of negro physicians; drug-stores, saloons, grocery-stores, coal and wood shops—in fact, almost every retail business in the city—are conducted on a small scale by negroes, and patronized almost exclusively by members of that race.

Of course the plan to establish a 'bus line failed. Opposition to it grew as its impracticable features became known, and at the third or fourth meeting nothing more was heard of the idea. The prevailing statement then was that the meeting was for the purpose of devising means to better the negro's condition in New Orleans.

The most sensible suggestion came from a band of ten or twelve negroes, who met several times to oppose the 'bus line movement. This suggestion was that eligible negroes register and vote, and that ineligible ones become educated or acquire property in order to be able to exercise the franchise rights granted under the Constitution of Louisiana. At the pro-'bus line meetings no such suggestion was hinted at, and even when it was suggested to the negro community by this small band of clear-headed men, it created absolutely no comment.

Some time before the law went into effect it had ceased to be generally discussed by both negroes and whites. At no time during any of the discussions was there the least violence either in language or conduct, and throughout it all the negroes have retained the sympathy of a large part of the white population. There was, of course, no trouble in enforcing the law. What effect it has had on the number of negroes carried by the cars cannot be accurately known, but the conductors say that there has been a large falling off. Several prominent negroes have refused to be seen on a "Jim Crow" car. They prefer to walk. Others ride on the cars, but stand on the platforms rather than be forced to sit behind the screens.

But, whatever has been the bad or questionable effects of the law, there has been at least one good effect. It has been demonstrated that the negro has more friends among the intelligent white people of New Orleans than he has ever had before; that he is to-day regarded as more capable than ever before of those finer sentiments of which the white race is so justly proud.

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Adventures of Baron Munchausen (The). By Rudolph Erich Raspe. (Children's Favorite Classics.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 4¼×6¾ in. 250 pages. 60c.

Adventures of Don Quixote de la Mancha. By Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. (New Century Library Edition.) Thomas Nelson & Sons, New York. 4×6½ in. 784 pages. $1.50.

Thin paper, clear type, and pretty binding unite to give us another of the remarkable small-volume editions now so popular.

American Animals. By Witmer Stone and William Everett Cram. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 7½×10½ in. 318 pages. $3, net.

The six plates in color and the many photographs from life make this volume agreeable to the taste, and by picture and description it brings before the reader all the important North American mammals. The text has been prepared with evident accuracy and thoroughness; as a scientific handbook the work has solid and permanent value.

American Literature—A Laboratory Method. By H. L. Mason. (Second Edition.) The Drexel Institute, Philadelphia. 5¼×7¾ in. 186 pages.

Andy's Adventures on Noah's Ark. By Douglas Zabriskie Doty. Illustrated by Louis M. Glackens. J. F. Taylor & Co., New York. 6×8¼ in. 218 pages. $1.20, net.

Angel of His Presence (The). By Grace Livingston Hill. **Gabriel the Acadian.** By Edith M. Nicholl Bowyer. The American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia. 4½×7½ in. 136 pages. 75c., net. (Postage, 7c.)

Book of Romance (The). Edited by Andrew Lang. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 384 pages. $1.60, net.

The latest volume in the long series of fairy tales and folk-lore edited by Mr. Andrew Lang, and forming an admirable collection of the literature of the youth of the world. This particular volume, largely written by Mrs. Lang, retells the story of "Arthur and the Round Table," and a number of other equally well-known tales. The volume is handsomely printed, and is uniform with the long series of its predecessors.

Book of Weddings (The): A Complete Manual of Good Form in all Matters Connected with the Marriage Ceremony. By Mrs. Burton Kingsland. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 245 pages. $1.20, net.

Boston Conference for Good City Government and Eighth Annual Meeting of the National Municipal League. Held May 7, 8, and 9, 1902, at Boston, Mass. Edited by Clinton Rogers Woodruff. The National Municipal League, Philadelphia. 5½×8½ in. 357 pages.

Cambridge Modern History (The). Planned by the late Lord Acton, LL.D. Edited by A. W. Ward, Litt.D., G. W. Prothero, Litt.D., Stanley Leathes, M.A. Vol. I. **The Renaissance.** The Macmillan Co., New York. 6½×9¾ in. 807 pages. $3.75, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Cathedrals of Great Britain (The): Their History and Architecture. By P. H. Ditchfield, M.A., F.S.A. Illustrated. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5¾×7¼ in. 452 pages. $2.

A compact volume giving an architectural description and historical account of the cathedral churches of England, Wales, and Scotland, the endeavor of the writer being to omit the unimportant details but to leave out nothing which the visitor needs in order to get the atmosphere of each cathedral and to understand its architectural quality and significance. The volume is compact, and is abundantly furnished with illustrations and plans.

Citizen in His Relation to the Industrial Situation. (Yale Lectures.) By Henry Codman Potter, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of New York. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×8 in. 248 pages. $1, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Danny. By Alfred Ollivant. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 425 pages. $1.50.

Danny is as different a dog from "Bob, Son of Battle" as well could be, yet Mr. Ollivant has made him just as true to his own individual character. The story is more pathetic than its famous predecessor, and has three or four really well-portrayed men and women in it, but it is not quite so vigorous and dramatic in the story it tells.

Dogtown. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 15¼×7¾ in. 405 pages. $1.50, net.

Not only dogs, but cats, birds, and horses, are in this book, which is written for "all who love children and dogs," while the children themselves, foremost among whom is our old friend "Tommy-Anne," are natural, simple, and pleasing. There are many good dog-portraits, and the stories show true knowledge of dog-character. Mrs. Wright is one of the most acceptable and agreeable among American writers for young people.

East of the White Hills. Compiled by M. E. Eastman. Richards' Book Press, North Conway, N. H. 5¼×8 in. 139 pages.

Elegy of Faith (The): A Study of Alfred Tennyson's "In Memoriam." By William Rader. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 57 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 6c.)

Mr. Rader agrees with those critics who regard Tennyson's memorial of his friend Hallam as one of the great world-poems. He compresses into a few pages an all-round and felicitous critical estimate of it in its various aspects, literary, theological, and religious, comparing and contrasting it with Shakespeare's "Hamlet," Milton's "Lycidas," Shelley's "Adonais," and Goethe's "Faust." It is "a household poem," as no other of the world-poems is; "the poem of the new theology;" "the soul's song in the world's storm." So well wrought an essay should not have

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been blemished by an unjustifiable remark on the "materialism [?] of Locke and Spencer." The typographical execution is exceptionally fine.

Emmy Lou. By George Madden Martin. Illustrated. McClure, Phillips & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 279 pages.

It is not easy to describe "Emmy Lou, her Heart and her Book" in a few phrases; and it would be difficult in many phrases to convey its charm. It is the story of a little girl in a public school who is neither pretty nor bright, and whose experiences are told with the greatest simplicity. This is, indeed, one of the charms of the narrative; it has the touch of the *naïveté* of childhood. There is a good deal of humor in it. The older people, although only sketched against the background, are sufficiently defined to introduce variety. The vicissitudes of the little heroine on her way from those first terrible days in the lowest classes of the school to the time when she arrives at the distinction of being a leader in the literary society are told with such mingled sympathy and humor as to carry the reader delightedly along from the beginning to the end of the book.

Euclid: His Life and System. By Thomas Smith, D.D., LL.D. (The World's Epoch-Makers.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 227 pages. $1.25.

Euclid, the "founder of geometry" and the "father of all such as handle the rule and compasses," has probably molded more minds than Aristotle, his near contemporary, or any other of the wise men of Greece. Not much is known of his history, except that he was the first occupant of the chair of mathematics in the university founded at Alexandria by Ptolemy I. Professor Smith has done full justice to his somewhat shadowy figure, and to the science that preserves his fame; the development of which he traces, and the future of which he forecasts. That so dry a subject as mathematics can be treated in so juicy a way could hardly have been anticipated. In his eighty-fifth year Professor Smith exhibits a vein of sprightliness and humor that would be appreciated by a judicious modern newspaper. And so, while his work is thorough in a scientific view, his treatment of the formidable subject is sufficiently popular for the non-scientific but intelligent reader. Those who remember President Lincoln's fondness for Euclid will admit the modern world's debt to the great geometer.

First Manual of Composition (A). By Edwin Herbert Lewis. (Revised.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 292 pages. 60c., net.

His Mother's Letter. By J. M. Merrill. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 5×7½ in. 303 pages. $1.

History and Power of Mind (The). By Richard Ingalese. The Occult Book Concern, New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 286 pages. $2.

History of the Babylonians and Assyrians (A). By George Stephen Goodspeed, Ph.D. (Map and Plans.) Historical Series for Bible Students. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 6×7½ in. 422 pages.

It is impressively significant to find, earlier than the date to which many still persist in referring the creation of man, the same struggle for the political unification of independent States, of which comparatively recent history affords many instances, going on in the valley of the Euphrates—a fact implying an immeasurable antiquity of man. In the "wilderness of years" through which this struggle went on from 4500 to 2250 B.C., many shadowy figures loom up, requiring future exploration to bring them into distincter outline. Tracing the history from these dim beginnings to the transfer of the leadership of the world at the fall of Babylon to another race, Professor Goodspeed presents in compact and popular form all the information now possessed concerning the rise and fall of those ancient States. Their civilization as well as their historical fortune is sketched in a comprehensive account of their social structure and their intellectual achievements. It is only in the final and much the briefest period of their long history that any clear and influential connection with the history given in the Old Testament appears; "while many of the expressions of religious feeling and aspiration, first wrought out in the temples of Babylonia, have entered into the sacred language of universal religion."

How to Attract the Birds. By Neltje Blanchan. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 6×8¾ in. 224 pages. $1.35, net.

The author makes another pleasing contribution to the list of capital "nature books" already published under this pseudonym. "Why Birds Come and Go," "What Birds Do for Us," "Bird Architecture," are chapter-titles which indicate the popular scope of the book. There are many pictures from photographs.

I Can School (The). By Eva A. Madden. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 118 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Incentives for Life. By James M. Ludlow, D.D., Litt.D. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×8 in. 320 pages.

This is a book of unusual excellence. From cover to cover it is full of the best ethical teaching, virile, humane, Christian. Its "incentives" are found not in precept only, but in examples that give precedents for the achievements that precepts urge. These brighten every page with anecdote and illustration from biography, science, literature, history, and personal reminiscence, that carry the reader on to the end. Dr. Ludlow, in accord with sound psychology, regards the will as the point of first concern, and finds "the danger class in all classes" to be the weaklings who have no heart for the struggle of an earnest life. One must hope that his unhopeful report of "the average young person" is based on local rather than national observation. With conscience and various makeshifts for it Dr. Ludlow deals at length and to the point, but slips, we think, in instancing "moral sentiment" as one of the "substitutes for conscience." Sentiment is such; but no sentiment is accurately, though popularly, termed "moral" which does not bring the will into exercise, but is passively felt. Conscience is a convenient term for the whole body of our moral sentiments. In form

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and finish this book is literature, the literature of power. Indicative of this is its appropriate dedication to President Roosevelt, "with affectionate recollection of a boy in the pew who has since in public life and personal character signally exemplified the precepts contained in this book." The reader needs no further introduction, and finds none.

In Argolis. By George Horton. Illustrated. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 5½×7½ in. 226 pages.

In Perfect Peace. By Rev. J. R. Miller, D.D. (What is Worth While Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 30 pages. 28c., net. (Postage, 4c.)

In the Hour of Silence. By John Edgar McFadyen, B.A., M.A. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 212 pages. $2, net.

Professor McFadyen, favorably known to Biblical students by his volume on the "Messages of the Prophets and Priestly Historians," presents us here with another product of his Biblical studies, a series of brief spiritual meditations suitable for moments of private devotion.

Kulóskap the Master and Other Algonkin Poems. Translated Metrically by Charles Godfrey Leland, Hon. F.R.S.L., M.A., and John Dyneley Prince, Ph.D. Illustrated. The Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 370 pages. $2, net.

Last Days of Pompeii (The). By Lord Lytton. (New Century Library Edition.) Thomas Nelson & Sons, New York. 4×6½ in. 535 pages. $1.

Another good illustration of what may be packed into a volume of pocket size by the aid of good thin paper and legible type.

Les Héros de Roman. Dialogue de Nicolas Boileau-Despreaux. Edited by Thomas Frederick Crane. Ginn & Co., Boston. 4½×7½ in. 282 pages. 75c. (Postage, 10c.)

The French text of this witty dialogue appears illuminated by an introduction and notes which greatly add to our knowledge concerning Boileau and his work. The introduction takes up more room than the text itself; but in view of the fact that so little has popularly been known concerning Boileau, the length of the introduction is perhaps not disproportionate. The seventeenth century was more famous for the use of dialogues than any other period of so-called modern literature. Boileau reflected Lucian's "Dialogues of the Dead," Fénelon and Fontenelle also following Lucian's models. The scene of Boileau's "Héros de Roman" was laid in the nether world. The interlocutors were divided into two classes—those borrowed from Greek and Roman mythology, and those taken from French poetry, drama, and romance. In construction, character-drawing, and style we may regard the Dialogue as a masterpiece—if a minor one—of French literature.

Le Tour de la France. By G. Bruno. Edited for School Use by L. C. Syms. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7 in. 241 pages. 60c.

Life and Writings of Alexandre Dumas (1802-1870), The. By Harry A. Spurr. Illustrated. The Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 5×8¼ in. 382 pages. $2.

The extraordinary interest which attaches to Alexander Dumas's personality and career makes Mr. Spurr's biography and comment upon Dumas's work interesting in spite of a very unsatisfactory method and an awkward and ill-connected use of materials. The book is written sympathetically, as such a book ought to be. It is based on very full knowledge of Dumas's life and a thorough acquaintance with his work. It is divided into three parts, dealing with his life and character, with his work, and with his genius, and it is supplemented by a series of interesting appendices which contain estimates of the great romanticist from his collaborators and contemporaries. Mr. Spurr has allowed Dumas to speak for himself; and so, although he devotes less than a hundred pages to the biographic sections of his book, he succeeds in conveying a very vivid impression of Dumas's immense and exuberant vitality, his wholly immoral temper, his extraordinary working power, his happy-go-lucky, touch-and-go career. The race element evidently played a great part in Dumas's genius, his temper, and therefore in his life. His natural sensuousness, his love of color, the overflow of his vitality, his blunted moral perceptions and irregular moral life, combined with great generosity, kind-heartedness, and immense activity, are to be accounted for only when one considers his heredity. He was, perhaps, the wittiest man of whom any record has been kept; probably no one person ever said more bright things or had more of what the French call "esprit" than Dumas; and the record of his life, as Mr. Spurr tells it, is very largely made up of these things. A marvelous man and a marvelous writer, notwithstanding his moral and literary failings.

Life of Ulrich Zwingli. By Samuel Simpson. The Baker & Taylor Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 297 pages.

The first adequate biography of Zwingli by an English-speaking author appeared from the pen of Professor S. M. Jackson barely two years since. So meagerly and tardily has history recognized the worth of this great father of the Reformation that there was room and use for another memoir, such as Mr. Simpson has prepared, much briefer, but equally well written, and adequate to the needs of ordinary readers. An extended bibliography is added for special students.

Light for Daily Living. By John Maclean, Ph.D. William Briggs, Toronto, Canada. 4½×7¼ in. 160 pages, 50c., net.

This is a book of wise counsels. Some of its chapters are specially fresh and suggestive, as "The Grace of Forgetfulness" and "The Empty Margin." It might have been made more attractive to readers soon surfeited with wisdom by a larger infusion of illustrations drawn from those whose daily living has lighted the way of wisdom for others.

"Light Ho, Sir!" By Frank T. Bullen. (What is Worth While Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 32 pages. 28c., net. (Postage, 4c.)

Little Dusky Hero (A). By Harriet T. Comstock. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 93 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Luncheons: A Cook's Picture Book. By Mary Ronald. Illustrated. The Century Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 223 pages. $1.40, net. (Postage, 15c.)

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Maid Sally. By Harriet A. Cheever. Illustrated. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 279 pages. $1, net. (Postage, 10c.)

Manhood-Making. By Rev. Alexander Lewis, Ph.D. The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 5×7½ in. 215 pages.

Marble Faun (The). By Nathaniel Hawthorne. Illustrated. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 216 pages. $1.50.

Master Frisky. By Clarence Hawkes. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 107 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Mayken. By Jessie Anderson Chase. Illustrated. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 6×8 in. 219 pages.

This quaint, sweet, and wholesome story for children is not without charm and value to the adult reader. The scenes are laid in stirring times, and famous characters appear in familiar guise. Nine-year-old Mayken, daughter of William, Prince of Orange and Nassau, was, in her father's words, "a wise little woman and a princess kind and true," carrying on her slender shoulders burdens of state and citizenship with a dignity and grace that make this narrative of child life in the sixteenth century a source of inspiration to readers old and young.

Memoirs of a Contemporary. Translated by Lionel Strachey. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 6×9 in. 237 pages. $2.75, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Men and Women. By Minot J. Savage. The American Unitarian Association, Boston. 5¼×8 in. 179 pages. 80c., net.

Dr. Savage's subject is men and women as composing society, and determining its character by their relations, especially in marriage and the home. The subject is discussed with an attractive vigor and good sense. Dr. Savage deals freely and firmly with the delicate question of divorce, and propounds what will be to many a fresh view, to some a more optimistic view than the facts warrant—viz., that the greater number of divorces in the United States than elsewhere is because "here for the first time in history women are granted freedom to throw off a thousand intolerable burdens, under which they have been borne down and crushed from the foundation of the world."

Mind Power and Privileges. By Albert B. Olston. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 406 pages. $1.50, net.

In no other field have modern investigations of psychological phenomena been more interesting than in that of the sub-conscious self. The "subliminal" powers of the mind have been shown to be extraordinary. To these must be ascribed the comparatively rare phenomena such as hypnotism and telepathy, as well as the more usual but no more explicable phenomena of instinct and habit. This volume deals with the use to which such powers may be put, or, in the author's phrase, with "the service of the subjective mind." The first chapters of the book describe these powers, the remaining chapters indicate how they may be usefully guided so as to promote bodily health and moral self-control. The book just misses decided excellence. The ordinary reader cannot help feeling that the author is not altogether discriminating in his choice of evidence, and that his treatment is rather too homiletical to be effective. Nevertheless, in view of the temptation to sensationalism to which other writers on this subject have yielded, the opportunities for morbid fancies which it has often proved easy to indulge, and perverted philosophies and even religious cults that have been based on these so-called psychic phenomena, this book should be commended for its general sanity and wholesomeness. Three chapters are devoted to describing the characteristics and crude errors in logic of "Christian Science." In his concluding chapter the author indicates how the subliminal powers of the mind may, with practical benefit to body and character, reinforce religious faith. This book is one more among many illustrations of the pressure to which people of to-day are being subjected in regard to the therapeutic, ethical, and spiritual value of properly controlled mental states—a pressure to which both physicians and Christian ministers will find themselves forced to give increasing heed.

Miss De Peyster's Boy. By Etheldred Breeze Barry. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 82 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Mr. Sun and Mrs. Moon. By Richard Le Gallienne. Illustrated. R. H. Russell, New York. 8½×11½ in. 59 pages.

A very pretty versified fancy, illustrated and printed with taste and charm. Many will find more true poetical feeling in it than in all Mr. Le Gallienne's more ambitious undertakings.

Monks and Monasteries. By Alfred Wesley Wishart, Sometime Fellow in Church History in the University of Chicago. Albert Brandt, Trenton, N. J. 5×8 in. 459 pages.

This new and less expensive edition of a valuable work is enlarged by an appendix, the prominent part of which deals with the case of the Philippine friars as "the same old play with new actors and different scenery." Mr. Wishart's treatment of the entire subject is enlivened by such interest as attaches to human life when seen animated by a common spirit in situations as diverse as those of mendicants and statesmen, the wilderness and the palace. While he has undertaken no original research, he has made a judicious selection from the vast store of material at hand. He writes for the people rather than for scholars, but what scholars may read for the most part with satisfaction. In the estimate which he, a Protestant, makes of monasticism, to which Protestantism has been so hostile, his dispassionate and appreciative temper is especially commendable. He finds warning in it, but also inspiration, as "a magnificent attempt to realize the ideal of Christ in individual and social life." As a fair and judicial account of monasticism this may be regarded as ranking with the best.

My Life in Many States and in Foreign Lands. By George Francis Train. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 348 pages. $1.25, net. (Postage, 13c.)

"Citizen Train," as he likes to style himself, may be a "megalomaniac"—a man whose

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bump of self-esteem is inordinate; his ideas about prolonging life by psychic telepathy and abstinence from speech may not be understandable by the rest of us; he may be the most erratic of Americans—indeed, his book bears on its cover the phrase "the strangest man in the world." Nevertheless, this book shows that in his day Mr. Train has been a man who has "done things." In fact, the book itself is an achievement, for, we are told, it was dictated (100,000 words) in thirty-five hours; and it reads well; the narrative is clear-cut and direct in style, with few and brief allusions to Mr. Train's "crankisms." The dedication to the children is charming—who has not seen George Francis Train in his favorite seat in Madison Square Garden, with children all about him? The subject-matter of the book is interesting. Mr. Train in his earlier life knew many famous men, had many curious experiences, and had a part in some great commercial enterprises. He tells us, to quote from a summary, that—

He organized the clipper-ship line that sailed around Cape Horn to San Francisco and made American shipping lead the world.

He organized the Crédit Mobilier and the Union Pacific Railroad.

He was one of the organizers of the French Commune.

He built the first street railway in England.

He has been in jail fifteen times, from the Tombs to a Bastile, and never committed a crime.

He has made more than seventy ocean voyages. He has broken the round-the-world record three times.

He formerly lived in a villa, and spent $2,000 a week in maintaining it. Now he lives in the Mills Hotel, at a total expenditure of $3 a week.

New York, Old and New: Its Story, Streets, and Landmarks. By Rufus Rockwell Wilson. Illustrated. In 2 vols. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 390 pages. $3.50, net.

This work undertakes to provide in moderate size and low price what has hitherto been attainable only in costly and unwieldy books, namely, a complete and continuous narrative of the history and growth of New York City. The style is popular, the narrative readable, and special attention is paid to personal incidents, famous characters, and historical monuments. There are many illustrations. We hope to give the work a fuller examination later on.

Norwood; or, Village Life in New England. By Henry Ward Beecher. (Reprinted from the "New York Ledger.") The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 5×7¾ in. 549 pages.

Novels, Stories, and Sketches of F. Hopkinson Smith: Vol. VII. **The Other Fellow and Tile Club Stories.** Vols. VIII. and IX. **The Fortunes of Oliver Horn.** (The Beacon Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in.

Our Benevolent Feudalism. By W. J. Ghent. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 202 pages. $1.25, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Pete and Polly Stories (The). By Carolyn Wells. Illustrated. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 6×9¼ in. 231 pages.

Poems. By Percy Bysshe Shelley. (Endymion Series.) Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 334 pages. $2.

A selection including a large group of miscellaneous poems and shorter lyrics, dirges and laments, and four of the longer poems, "Epipsychidion," "Adonais," "The Triumph of Life," and "Prometheus Unbound," with an introduction by Mr. Walter Raleigh, the well-known English literary scholar, who interprets Shelley sympathetically. The illustrations, largely in outline, are by Robert A. Bell. The volume is very attractively printed.

Phil and Dick. By Enrique H. Lewis. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 5×7½ in. 291 pages. $1.

Practical Cooking and Serving: A Complete Manual of How to Select, Prepare, and Serve Food. By Janet McKenzie Hill. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 731 pages. $2, net.

Prince Silverwings and Other Fairy Tales. By Edith Ogden Harrison. Illustrated. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 7½×5¾ in. 123 pages.

Private Soldier Under Washington (The). By Charles Knowles Bolton. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5½×8¼ in. 258 pages. $1.25, net.

While much has been written about the American Revolution, our knowledge of the private soldiers of the Revolutionary army is chiefly confined to Washington's description of their sufferings at Valley Forge. Only in a line here and there, scattered through the mass of contemporary literature, is their story to be found. The present volume, therefore, is a timely contribution.

Quest of Happiness (The): A Study of Victory Over Life's Troubles. By Newell Dwight Hillis. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5¾×8 in. 549 pages. $1.50, net.

Dr. Hillis's subject is one of primary interest to the world, and he invests it with fresh interest by his treatment of it. He neither undervalues it with the Stoic, nor exaggerates it with the Epicurean. He regards happiness as a good, but as inseparable from the pursuit and acquisition of the supreme good, through a right use of the world, in obedience to the divine constitution and order of the world, both in the physical and the moral realm. In this, as his discussion assumes, there is "an unexplored remainder in Christianity," whose representatives have often forgotten due respect for divine laws not written in the Bible, and in consequence have too often unjustly decried God's world as a wilderness and vale of tears. As Dr. Hillis pursues his theme into its various relations with human environments, he finds cause to deal constantly with practical ethics, including economics, sociology, and hygiene, and to exhibit the solid ground of cheerful optimism that is given in religion. The story of "Comfortas" in sections prefixed to the successive chapters gives the leading thought of each in the form of an introductory parable. One finds evidence throughout of the tribute which Dr. Hillis has levied on wide fields of reading in his illustration of the subject from men and books, and also of his broadly human sympathies. With this there is evidence of occasional tripping in the besetting fault of rhetorical facility not duly careful of facts. It is, for example, not the fact that a single poisoned word in a feud of statesmen has changed the destiny of our Nation; not the fact that more women than men apply to our great colleges. The typographical appearance of the book is as inviting as its subject.

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Readjusted Church (The). By E. F. Blanchard. The Abbey Press, New York. 5×8 in. 212 pages. $1.

Reflections of Ambrosine. By Elinor Glyn. Harper & Bros., New York. 5×7½ in. 310 pages. $1.50.

More ambitious and less amusing than "The Visits of Elizabeth" by this author. Both books, in our judgment, are likely to exercise an injurious influence, not so much because the author, in a lively way, pictures English society as universally corrupt, but because neither author nor characters appear to regard this as anything more than a natural, inevitable, and, on the whole, highly amusing state of affairs. It would be absurd to thunder in solemn admonition against what is meant to be merely a gay, trivial, clever story, but we hope that the author's next ingenuous girl heroine will be able to find in her world at least one person free from taint.

Reign of King Oregon (The). By Walter Jerrold. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 338 pages. $2.

Religion as a Credible Doctrine. By W. H. Mallock. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 487 pages. $3, net.

Mr. Mallock is here, as usual, incisive, and cuts right and left with a vigor that compels attention. Essentially, though transformed to meet present conditions, his work is a reproduction of Kant's exhibition of the failure of "pure reason" to reach holding-ground for theistic belief, and of "practical reason" as the sole ground on which theism may be firmly held. Three-fourths of the volume is devoted to the negative side in merciless demolition of the intellectual arguments for God, freedom, immortality. These cardinal doctrines of theism "are reduced to dreams and impossibilities." The remainder of the volume with equal vigor contends for these as practically necessary to "all moral and all social civilization," and to "the entire development and exercise of the higher human faculties generally." The world of human values—of ideals, of loves, of wills—is as real a world, Mr. Mallock holds, as the world of cosmic facts and forces, and God, freedom, immortality, are its inseparable correlates. The proper inference from the conclusion that for these "it is impossible for the intellect to find a place among the facts of science" is simply the impotence of the intellect to grasp things in their totality. To this the theologians equally with Mr. Spencer and Mr. Huxley, all of whom Mr. Mallock indicts alike for solemn nonsense, would agree. Whether it was worth while for Mr. Mallock to go to such length for this proposition may be questioned; perhaps vindicated by his aim to bring irreligious men to the ground of the practical reason. But Mr. Mallock is open to correction in some cardinal points. He constantly confounds "science" with the philosophic interpretation which *some* scientific men, as Haeckel, put upon the facts of science. Neither does he correctly state what theism is: he is not aware that theism affirms the immanence as well as the transcendence of a supreme intelligence. And his statement that "the opposition between science and religion" is now "an opposition between a monistic philosophy and a dualistic" is subject to large qualification. There is a popular dualism that need not be taken so seriously. There is a religious monism with which Mr. Mallock is not yet acquainted. The book is marked by intellectual keenness and force, applied with a serious purpose, but under limitations that seem due to the writer's environment. The impregnable ground of theism is certainly where Mr. Mallock finds it. The God of the theist is primarily an ethical Being: it is in ethical nature that the most convincing evidence of him is to be found.

Romances of Early America. By Edward Robins. George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia. 5½×8½ in. 269 pages. $2.50, net. (Postage, 15c.)

Let no one think that Mr. Robins's work is one of those books prepared at this season of the year for Christmas consumption and for no other. While in print, paper, and binding it has something of a holiday appearance, it is a real contribution to history, for three of its chapters tell us about the private lives of Washington, Jefferson, and Madison. The chapter on Washington will be most discussed; it gives us something of the same illumination already had from the late Paul Leicester Ford's "The True George Washington."

Roi Apépi (Le). By Victor Cherbuliez. William R. Jenkins, New York. 5×7½ in. 174 pages. Paper bound. 60c.

Roy and Rosyrocks. By Mary Agnes Byrne. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 6½×7¾ in. 83 pages. 60c.

Sisters of Reparatrice. By Lucia Gray Swett. Lee & Shepard, Boston. 5½×8 in. 45 pages. 80c., net.

Smoke and Flame (The). By Charles F. Dole. The American Unitarian Association, Boston. 4½×7 in. 206 pages. 80c., net.

In this fresh volume Mr. Dole traces the growth of religion as the slow coming to consciousness of the divine ideal of humanity, as it begins to realize itself in these days, when the life of the spirit is submerging old theological barriers in its interest for goodness, brotherhood, and welfare. Mr. Dole's enthusiasm for humanity is genuine and quickening, and profitable both for reproof and encouragement. His thought that the time has come for the rising of a "civic" church, free of all conventionalisms, based on the single idea of promoting human welfare, theistic in principle and Christian in spirit, but not Christian in phrase and name, is characteristically sanguine. Nothing is wanting to it but the express recognition of the religious ideal embodied in personal form as the norm of aspiration, without which any project for a church is a cloud-castle. This essential lack in Mr. Dole's project lies near his hand in Theodore Parker's noble hymn on Jesus' saying, "I am the Way and the Truth and the Life."

Stan Lynn: A Boy's Adventures in China. By George Manville Fenn. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 400 pages. $1.50.

Stan Lynn, just from school in England, gallantly assists his father and uncle, merchants at Haihai, in defending their warehouse

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against attack from Chinese pirates. His conduct inspires them with such confidence in him that they send him as assistant manager to their branch collecting house on the Mour River, where experiences even more exciting crowd him thick and fast. The time is presumably during the late Boxer movement, though pirates rather than Boxers figure in the disturbances. Besides the action of the story, which will hold any boy's rapt attention, its insight into Chinese character and custom and its vivid local coloring invest it with timely value in these days when all things Chinese command public interest.

Studies of a Biographer. By Leslie Stephen. (Second Series.) Vols. III. and IV. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5½×8¼ in.

Reserved for later notice.

Sunset Song and Other Verses. By Elizabeth Ackers. Lee & Shepard, Boston. 5½×8 in. 313 pages. $1.20, net.

Songs full of tender sentiment and true lyric feeling may be found interspersed throughout this volume, by the author of that world-famous song "Rock Me to Sleep, Mother." A brief history of the vicissitudes of this song and of the number of claimants for it is also given.

Thelma. By Marie Corelli. Illustrated by W. E. B. Starkweather. R. F. Fenno & Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 520 pages.

This is for You: Love Poems of a Saner Sort. Selected by William Sinclair Lord. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 182 pages.

In the book line a lover could not choose a more fitting offering than this. A bashful swain might almost trust the book to propose for him—or certainly to open the way to a proposal. "Love-making Made Easy" might be a good sub-title. The dainty brown volume, in box to match, contains a selection of choicest English love-lyrics; famous authors of Europe and America, living and dead, are drawn upon, and less-known writers, even "anonymous," are also laid under tribute.

Three Little Marys. By Nora Archibald Smith. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5¼×7¾ in. 120 pages. 85c., net.

Miss Smith's dainty book contains affectionate portraitures of three little Marys—an Irish, an English, and a Scotch Mary; the author's intention evidently being not only to sketch the different backgrounds of the three children, but also to bring out the different race-characteristics; to present, in a word, pictures of the childhood of three different peoples. She has done this with the nice art of a trained writer who is also a lover of children and has had a great acquaintance with them, both in this country and in the countries about which she writes.

Timothy and His Friends. By Mary E. Ireland. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron. 5×7½ in. 317 pages. $1.

The story of a Baltimore newsboy—a winning waif to whom many people are kind. He finally discovers that he has been well born, and inherits a fortune. Plot and circumstances have long done duty in fiction, but the tale is sympathetically told, and Timothy lives in its pages.

To-Day and To-Morrow. By J. R. Miller, D.D. Illustrated. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 29 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 6c.)

Tom Burke of "Ours." By Charles Lever. (New Century Library Edition.) Thomas Nelson & Sons, New York. 4×6½ in. 941 pages. $1.

A pretty, small-volume edition of a famous rollicking Irish tale.

Uncle Charley. By Zephine Humphrey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 226 pages.

Under Calvin's Spell. By Deborah Alcock. Illustrated. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×8 in. 365 pages. $1.50.

Vicar of Wakefield (The). By Oliver Goldsmith. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 305 pages. 80c.

Mr. Hugh Thomson's drawings make this edition most desirable. No artist has so well caught Goldsmith's spirit and humor.

Weaving of Webs (The). By F. W. van Praag. R. F. Fenno & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 366 pages. $1.50.

The webs are woven in and around Richmond in the exciting times of '62, when a Federal officer disguised in Confederate uniform comes to Richmond under McClellan's orders to obtain information of Jackson's movements. He does not manage this successfully, but, what is more to the romancer's purpose, falls in love with a Southern girl who says uncomplimentary things of him—a conjunction of circumstances not unusual in stories of this sort. Judah P. Benjamin and Generals Lee and McClellan appear on the scene—the first, however, in a more gullible character than is in keeping with what is known of his character.

Whispering Tongues. By Homer Greene. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 100 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Whom the Gods Destroyed. By Josephine Dodge Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 236 pages. $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

With a Saucepan Over the Sea. Selected and Compiled by Adelaide Keen. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 5½×8 in. 265 pages. $1.50, net.

A odd, curiosity-piquing name is this for a cook-book, and whoever opens its pages with any interest whatever in cookery will not lay it down in a hurry. It shows a really fresh and interesting method of dressing a most hackneyed subject. Not only are the original recipes given for dishes that have become historically famous among kings, queens, and courtiers, but also those favored for ages by workers, peasants, and humble folk the world over; and the peculiar seasonings used by every land and section, together with private family recipes treasured as secrets for generations. Wherever practicable, the private history of these dishes is given—all of which makes reading to be relished.

Yellow Violin (The). By Mary A. Denison. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 5×7½ in. 311 pages. $1.

Young People's Songs of Praise. By Ira D. Sankey. The Biglow & Main Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 256 pages.

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